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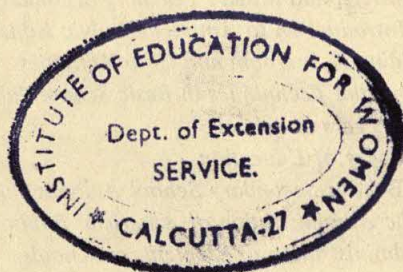


McGraw-Hill Series in Education

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PERSONNEL PROBLEMS  
OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS



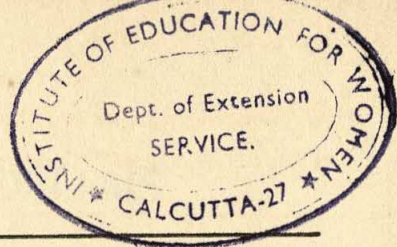
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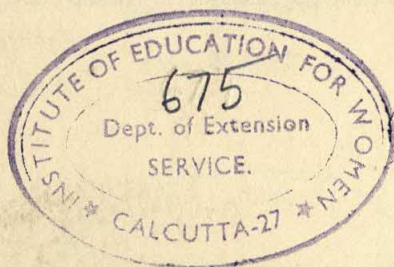
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# PERSONNEL PROBLEMS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

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Professor of Education  
University of Connecticut



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New York Toronto London  
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1954



## PERSONNEL PROBLEMS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

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*To*  
My Wife, MARY E. WEBER  
*and*  
Our Daughters  
BETTY L. DEWEY  
JANE E. RUCK





## *Preface*

This book is an outgrowth of nineteen years of experience as a teacher and administrator in the public schools, of four years' experience as director of the Fort Trumbull Branch of the University of Connecticut, and of several years' experience as a teacher of graduate students in public school administration. These years of experience, observation, and inquiry have led the writer to conclude that human problems in school administration outweigh all others in importance.

The author has directed his writing toward seven groups in the field of public education: (1) experienced administrators who are looking for better ways to solve personnel problems, (2) young men and women who aspire to become school administrators, (3) teachers in public schools who are deeply concerned with finding better solutions to personnel problems, (4) young men and women preparing to teach in public schools, (5) teachers' organizations seeking to become more professional in their outlooks and in practice, (6) boards of education concerned with establishing appropriate personnel policies, and (7) lay men and women engaged in serious, constructive study of problems of public education in America.

Description of past practices is not a major feature of this book because the author has discovered that when people focus attention too closely upon such practices, there is a tendency to perpetuate them rather than to uncover better approaches to problems. Consequently, the author has been more concerned with a brief examination of current practice, followed by suggested new approaches to problems. It is hoped that this type of presentation will stimulate and encourage practitioners to experiment, evaluate experiments, and make new inquiry which will lead to further experimentation and evaluation.

The author has been more concerned with "getting something going" in the minds of those who work on problems of public education than with perpetuating current practice. The book might well be used in courses in school administration, supervision, and personnel management. Similarly it might be used in basic courses in education to give young people insight concerning the significant human aspects of school administration. Teachers who are active in the National Education Asso-

ciation, state teachers' associations, and the American Federation of Teachers will find this book challenging as they work toward professionalization of their organizations. Boards of education and citizens' committees for the public schools will find this book a useful tool in thinking through problems of school support and management.

Acknowledgment is due the following people for their stimulation to inquire: Dean P. Roy Brammell, University of Connecticut; Dr. J. Monroe Hughes, Northwestern University; Dr. Eugene Lawler, University of Florida; Dr. G. Robert Koopman, State Department of Education, Michigan; board members G. F. Hayes, W. J. Curtis, Bertha Dukey, D. R. Lapan, and A. S. Young of Galva, Illinois, and Anton Svec of Cicero, Illinois; Dr. M. Jay Blaha, supervisor of secondary education, Los Angeles County, California; John Goodman, P. T. Pritzkau, John Karnes, Doris Nason, and C. W. H. Erickson of the professional staff of the School of Education, University of Connecticut; and E. A. Adler, F. O. Fingles, H. H. Benjamin, Sumner Cohen, and David Yeomans, associate administrative officers, Fort Trumbull Branch, University of Connecticut.

The author has drawn from the writing and thinking of others in preparation of this book. In the context, in footnotes, and in bibliographies, proper acknowledgment has been given to authors and to their publishers. Without the work of such authors and without support of publishers of works of such authors, this book could not have appeared.

The author especially thanks the Bruce Publishing Company for permission to use materials written by him and published in the *American School Board Journal*.

This book could never have been written without the secretarial help of Lorraine Kiczuk, without patient examination of the manuscript by the author's wife Mary and by his daughter Betty Dewey. The painstaking assistance of his daughter Jane Ruck in proofreading and in final preparation of the manuscript is gratefully acknowledged.

C. A. Weber



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## CHAPTER 1 *The Importance and Nature of Personnel Problems*

My first introduction to personnel problems of teachers occurred more than forty years ago when I was in first grade. On that eventful day, which was the opening day of school, I proudly took leave of the shelter of home and walked expectantly and excitedly to the location where everything, as I saw it, was to open up.

My mother had been watchful for six years. My health and well-being had been scrupulously cared for. It had been my habit, at the suggestion of mother, to carry an apple in my pocket for a midmorning lunch (which, as all boys know, is decidedly desirable). Just before taking off for this new experience of going to school, I had stuffed a big red apple in my pocket.

During the course of the morning, sitting still for the first time for a period longer than ten minutes, my boyish appetite became an over-coming force. Hence, not realizing that principals of schools and teachers regarded eating in school as a major and cardinal sin, I proceeded to eat the apple! As I look back upon that event, I realize what Shakespeare meant when he wrote in Julius Caesar, "Oh, What a fall was there, my countrymen, there you and I, and all of us fell down." My actions precipitated a catastrophe par excellence.

Just as I was taking the second bite, the first one having gone unnoticed by the teacher, the principal walked in the room. His eagle eye, quite accustomed, I presume, to spotting evil in its nascent and incipient stage, located my apple, me, and my obvious concentration upon the mastication of the apple. Like a flash this caretaker of the welfare and morals of the young was at my side holding tenaciously and firmly to my right ear, pulling upward and to the right, exclaiming, "Come with me, young man!" I did just that, wondering all the while what had hit me so suddenly. Out I went, trying to keep on tiptoe so I could keep my ear. Down the corridor, up the stairs, down the hall to the high school



assembly hall I tiptoed. By this time the apple was gone and tears had taken its place. Into the assembly hall, up to the platform I was led. Then, as though in a frightful dream, I was lifted bodily to the top of the teacher's desk and told to face the audience of high school "students" and eat my apple. "Let this be a lesson to you," my guardian angel of moral development shouted, "never to eat an apple again in school." But I had no apple! In utter desperation this powerful influence upon my future grabbed me and pushed me to his office on the same floor. Upon arriving, I noticed, between sobs, that my teacher was in the office, too! I secretly wondered what she had done. But such thoughts were driven away by the rather strenuous use of a willow whip by my educational leader. I repented and promised that never again would I eat an apple in school. (This promise has, I am sure, been scrupulously kept.)

Then, to my utter amazement, the principal turned on the teacher and gave her one of the most violent lectures on the subject of discipline I have ever heard. Every word he spoke drew me closer to that teacher. And when he was through, that teacher had a friend.

As I look back at that experience, I see the beginning of my interest in personnel problems. No doubt that principal managed the business affairs of his school with more than ordinary skill—but he was an artist at destroying morale of pupils and teachers.

There can be no doubt that such events as I have described are much rarer today than they were forty years ago on the wild and woolly frontier of the state of Oregon where I spent my boyhood. But they occur even today in different forms. Many people have wondered why one school superintendent was admired, respected, and even loved, while others were looked upon as mediocre. Is this difference due chiefly to the superior ability of one in managing the business and matériel of the schools? Or is this difference due chiefly to the fact that one is a superior manager of personnel?

Every school administrator must know how to manage both matériel and personnel, but personnel management is vastly more important than management of materials.

In the main, school administrators are unusually competent; they are intelligent, energetic, willing to work, and eager to do their best for the youth of America. Only rarely does one find an administrator like the one who worked assiduously on my ear. But in spite of this high degree of competence, many of them flounder and muddle in the area of dealing with personnel problems of the staff.

If school administrators would only take time from their continuous concern for budgetary details, handling of office routine, dealing with boards of education, and devising public information plans to give equal attention to the personnel problems of the staff, they would become more



able administrators, greater leaders, and much more potent agents in the development of youth.

A case in point is appropriate here. A branch of a university, established as a temporary means for meeting the needs of returning veterans, with an average enrollment of 1,500 men, had just closed after four years of operation. On the day of returning the facilities to the United States Navy, the director received the following note from a plumber<sup>1</sup> who had worked for the university at the branch for four years:

Dear Doc,

We are "washed up." After four wonderful years we see the end. I've been thinking about these four years and trying to decide why it has been such a short time. I've come to the conclusion that the reason is that we all were working for the same reason, to help educate the guys, who fought for us during the war. Some of us taught, some of us were policemen, some of us swept the floors, and I fixed the leaks in the pipes—but we were all working together in our different ways for the same purpose—the education of the men.

Good luck,

(Signed) Mac

The point of this citation is that no leader with reasonable intelligence could fail when the members of his staff, even to the plumber, displayed such morale and commonness of purpose. In such a situation the ordinary mistakes and errors of the top man melt away and are unnoticed because the major job being done looms so important and so significant as to dwarf his poor decisions.

The school administrator who is constantly concerned with solving the intricate problems of the personnel of the staff is most likely to find an immensely effective staff. His very concern for the solving of personnel problems causes him to become intimately concerned with the professional problems of the staff and to become actively concerned with developing more appropriate learning experiences for children. Establishing appropriate principles and policies with respect to personnel problems of the staff becomes the *sine qua non* of successful leadership.

School administrators with little feeling for developing high morale, and with little appreciation of the importance of developing high morale, are poorly equipped to solve the problems of the public school system. School employees should feel that their leaders are concerned with employee problems in all their intricate details; they should feel that their leaders are able and eager to help them solve problems; they should feel that their leaders are their friends. An effective leader should always act so that his co-workers will clearly understand that he honestly believes his own interests are identical with those of each member in the school system they all serve.

<sup>1</sup> Leon McLaughlin, Groton, Conn.



The public schools are "of the people, by the people, and for the people," to borrow a line from Lincoln. In our democracy, as we know it in the United States, the good will of the public is essential for the ultimate success of any educational enterprise. With the public's good will, a school system can do almost anything; without it, little of permanent value can be accomplished. School people are slowly learning the truth about public faith and good will. Too often administrators have not learned that public good will is more likely to exist when they are active in development of policies which present a united appeal to the public, charged with the energy, enthusiasm, and high morale of all professional workers.

When administrators and a few members of the staff initiate new procedures in a school system without the united and coordinated action of most of the professional staff, their plans are attacked behind closed doors where fellow workers are engaged in the process of attack. Without appropriate personnel administration, the chances for undermining the school's program increase at alarming rates.

Adequate financial support is a function of good will. What the people want they will buy. Money still talks in every educational system, and the solution of practically every educational problem is measured in terms of the budget. Therefore, the better the professional agents in a school system can develop community support for educational improvements, the more likely the people are to be generous in supplying the funds to finance the schools. "We" at this point assumes the role of a very large word. The more people included in the word "we" the more powerful the word becomes. If administration can learn to manage personnel problems well enough to include all professional agents in the "we," it will not be long before the public at large becomes a part of the "we" also. When this occurs, things happen in any community, and for the best interests of children.

The child is still the center in any school system. Teachers have been, and still are, the key to the growth of children in school. Without teachers whose skill, understanding, character, and spirit are such as to promote the wholesome development of children, the best building in the country with the finest educational equipment and the best of supplies can be a crime against children. Thus the problems of teachers are crucial to administrators. The outstanding problem of education today is the development of personnel programs which cause teachers to become better teachers. The nub of the situation is this—administrators should give ever-increasing attention to personnel problems of the staff.

In some circles it has become unpopular to suggest that schools could learn from industry, but in connection with dealing with personnel prob-



lems, schools have much to learn from this source. Gradually, and in the hard way, business and industry have learned that it pays to spend time, money, energy, and effort on the development of personnel policies which can be examined, reviewed, and reconstructed. They have, as a result of experience, discovered that the human element in business and industry must be more fully recognized. They have learned that the conservation of human capacity, interest, and energy is far more important than the conservation of other natural resources.

Two quotations from men of industry serve to illustrate this point:

Morale is a basic driving force which management must develop in all those who are effectively to serve industry, themselves, and society. Employees whose morale is high are flexible, adaptive, and receptive. They try to do their jobs well; they take pride in improved or increased production; they seek and suggest new methods or more efficient machines. Workers with low morale do none of these things; they are apathetic toward work, and indifferent to their own as well as their employer's welfare; and they often show a hostility that may range from stubborn resistance to open rebellion and strikes. Only men and women who know how to work, who want to work, and who understand the relationship of work and profit to the dignity, development, and happiness of human beings can make a democracy succeed.<sup>2</sup>

and

Many of the more advanced industrial organizations realize the grave necessity of sound human relations . . . these are the companies that are giving as much attention to research in the field of human relations as they are to research covering raw materials and products.<sup>3</sup>

Having established that personnel problems are so important, we turn our attention to the question: What are the personnel problems of teachers?

### *Income Is a Problem*

Although there is a rather common belief that teachers are single persons with only themselves to look after, research reveals that "the average teacher, whether single or married, regardless of sex, bears a substantial burden of dependency."<sup>4</sup> Most men in the teaching profession are married, and in 1945, 34 per cent of the women teaching in city

<sup>2</sup> Quoted by permission, from Earl G. Planty, William S. McCord, and Carlos A. Efferson, *Training Employees and Managers*, p. 13, The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1948.

<sup>3</sup> Quoted by permission, from Charles Reitell, *Training Workers and Supervisors*, p. 123, The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1941.

<sup>4</sup> Quoted by permission, from Hazel Davis and R. R. Foster, in W. S. Monroe (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 1416, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1950.



school systems were either married or widowed. In rural areas the percentage was even higher.<sup>6</sup> Since such a large number of teachers must support, in part at least, persons other than themselves, the annual salary received becomes a matter of considerable importance. Many teachers find it necessary to seek employment during the regular school year and during the summer in areas other than teaching. The Connecticut study revealed that 22 per cent of the teachers sought supplemental income, most of which came from earning money by outside work.<sup>6</sup>

The probable reason for teachers seeking outside employment is that in comparison to other professional incomes and in comparison to some nonprofessional incomes, teachers' salaries are low.<sup>7</sup> During the twelve-year period beginning in 1940, the salaries of teachers have lagged far behind other groups although teachers' salaries have risen during the period.

Because the salaries of teachers are low in comparison to the salaries of those with whom teachers spend much of their time, and because salaries are not sufficient to enable many teachers to support themselves and their dependents in a fashion usually expected by the community, the problem of salaries and salary schedules looms large in the eyes of teachers as the number one personnel problem.

### *Education in Service Is a Problem*

Increase in the pressure for higher salaries for teachers has caused individual teachers and teachers' organizations to be concerned with the improvement of teachers in service. Teachers have found that every campaign to secure increases in salaries has brought with it criticism of a negative nature concerning the quality of work being done by the profession. As one teacher put it, "When we ask for better salaries, we automatically open the hunting season for teachers, and many people are taking pot shots at us because we aren't as proficient as we should be."<sup>8</sup> Furthermore, when teachers seek improvements of tenure laws, or improved methods for dealing with sick leave, or lighter teaching loads, they find that the public and boards of education are inclined to question the quality of service being rendered. Stecher<sup>9</sup> typifies the kind of reaction teachers frequently meet when he states:

<sup>6</sup> *The Teacher Looks at Personnel Administration*, NEA Research Bulletin 23, pp. 93-148, 1945.

<sup>7</sup> *Teachers in Connecticut Public Schools*, Connecticut Department of Education Bulletin 31, Hartford, Conn., 1943.

<sup>8</sup> "Salary Trends for Teachers and Other Groups," *School and Current Economic Trends*, NEA Research Division, Washington, 1946.

<sup>9</sup> Unpublished paper submitted by Claire Brown, graduate student, School of Education, University of Connecticut, 1951.

<sup>\*</sup> Quoted by permission, from Karl Stecher, *Education for the American People*, pp. 6-7, Mason Press, Macon, Ga., 1943.



It is rare that any reform comes from within; it is generally forced from without. It is doubtful whether reform in education will be any exception to the general rule.

Today the educator who tries to eliminate the deadwood . . . meets tremendous opposition from entrenched educators who want merely to continue to teach what their teachers taught them.

As a result of the criticism that teachers tend to become entrenched in their procedures and methods, as a result of public criticism of the job being done by the public schools, and because teachers themselves recognize the need for improvement of the profession, teachers have indicated that growth in service is one of the major personnel problems of our time.

Men like Stecher are wrong. The teaching profession is concerned with improving its own services and its own program. In spite of this, however, the pressure from outside the teaching group remains strong. New certification requirements have been introduced to "raise standards of the profession." Boards of education have made earning of advanced degrees prerequisites to higher salaries and are "putting on the pressure" to cause teachers to grow in service. Weber found that teachers want to grow in service and that they welcome the right sort of approach to the problem.<sup>10</sup>

### *Orientation Is a Problem*

In one study, sixty-four beginning high school teachers reported that when they began their work they felt a great need for orientation in the development of plans of action for dealing with school discipline, teaching courses for which they were not prepared, understanding the purposes and goals of the school program, establishing rapport with other teachers, finding adequate housing and suitable living quarters, discovering recreational activities, making contact with administrative officers, and finding time to participate in community affairs.<sup>11</sup>

### *Evaluation of Teaching Service Is a Problem*

Teachers have always been concerned with problems pertaining to evaluation of teaching. Teachers realize that the people who support public education by paying taxes are entitled to know whether or not they are getting the best educational offering which their money can buy. At the same time teachers are aware of the fact that research in the field of teaching competencies is not convincing. Since the profession

<sup>10</sup> C. A. Weber, *Techniques Employed in a Selected Group of Secondary Schools of the North Central Association for Educating Teachers in Service*, Doctoral Dissertation, Chap. III, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., 1943.

<sup>11</sup> M. W. Tate, "The Induction of Secondary School Teachers," *School Review*, 51:150-57 (1943).



itself recognizes that it has no adequate definition of teaching efficiency which enables the profession to measure efficiency, teachers look with troubled eyes on attempts to evaluate teaching services.

Since some communities have adopted what is known as merit ratings and merit-type salary schedules, teachers are becoming increasingly aware of the whole area of evaluation of teaching services as a major personnel problem.

Witty<sup>12</sup> secured letters from over 40,000 school children, from which letters he concluded that the most frequently mentioned desirable traits of teachers were:

1. Cooperative, democratic attitudes.
2. Kindliness and consideration for the child.
3. Patience.
4. Wide interest.
5. Pleasant appearance and manner.
6. Fairness and impartiality.
7. Sense of humor.
8. Good disposition and consistent behavior.
9. Interest in pupil problems.
10. Flexibility.
11. Use of recognition and praise.
12. Unusual proficiency in teaching.

The most frequently mentioned undesirable traits reported by Witty were:

1. Intolerance and bad temper.
2. Unfairness, inclination to have favorites.
3. Disinclination to help pupils.
4. Unreasonableness in demands.
5. Gloominess and unfriendliness.
6. Sarcastic behavior.
7. Unattractive personal appearance.
8. Impatience and inflexibility.
9. Tendency to talk too much.
10. Inclination to talk down to pupils.
11. Being conceited and overbearing.
12. Lacking in a sense of humor.

Teachers, generally, recognize the need for evaluating teaching service, but they count this as a serious personnel problem because they feel that in many cases those who make judgments concerning teacher efficiency and teacher effectiveness are poorly prepared, by both training and experience to do so.

<sup>12</sup> Paul A. Witty, "Evaluation of Studies of the Characteristics of the Effective Teacher," *Improving Educational Research*, Official Report of the American Educational Research Association, pp. 198-204, 1948.

### *Teaching Load Is a Problem*

The problem of teaching load is a serious one for many teachers. If a teacher's salary is so inadequate that it becomes necessary to work at non-educational occupations after school, in the evenings, or on Saturdays, the question of teacher load becomes one of serious concern to a teacher. If a teacher does not really enjoy teaching, the hours spent at it are burdensome and the matter of load looms large. If the pattern of school organization is such as to bring about frustration and discouragement, teachers become very concerned about load. If beginning teachers are assigned heavier loads than experienced teachers, they become very concerned about load. Furthermore, some teachers are rewarded with high salaries when their teaching loads are light, while other teachers who are assigned heavy teaching loads may receive much less attractive incomes. Being given extracurricular assignments such as coaching athletics, directing the band, coaching school plays, and advising yearbook staffs usually results in additional income for teachers, and those who are not assigned these activities rebel and ask for a redefinition of teaching load.

### *Separations, Dismissals, Transfers Are Problems*

Many teachers are concerned with the methods used in handling such matters as resignations, requests for release from contracts, promotions, transfers from one department to another, dismissals, and tenure. The school superintendent who has not found one or more of these matters to be of serious concern to teachers is rare indeed. In the main, the concern over these aspects of the problems of personnel administration stems from feelings of insecurity. Teachers fear that requesting release from contracts will hinder future efforts at securing employment, that transfers from one building to another will interfere with their own plans or result in disorganization of their own lives, that promotions go to those who are best liked, that being assigned to teach in other departments may require additional preparation, and that absence of tenure leaves them at the mercy of those external to the teaching profession who may have an "ax to grind."

### *Leaves of Absence Are Problems*

Leaves of absence to recover from illness, sickness, disease, and accident are generally recognized as essential characteristics of a sound program of personnel administration.

Other forms of leave do not have such wide approval. Questions concerning extended leaves of absence for long illness, maternity leave, sabbatical leaves for the purpose of study or travel, and leaves of ab-



sence for the purpose of getting work experience in other fields are questions which deserve discussion. In large cities one is more likely to find established policies concerning leaves of absence, but in smaller communities sick leave is about the only type of leave provided for in policies of the school. In a study of the secondary schools of the North Central Association, Weber<sup>13</sup> found that:

1. Granting leaves of absence to study or travel is an infrequent practice regardless of the size of school.
2. Those schools which have granted leaves to teachers for study or travel reported the practice to be very beneficial to the school and to the teacher.
3. Three-fourths of the schools have some form of sick leave, but it is important to note that twenty-five per cent have no such plans.
4. Only one-third of the schools have a program of cumulative sick leave.
5. The chief obstacles seem to be: leaving matters of leave to administrators and boards without any cooperative planning by teachers, some teachers abuse the plan, and costs.
6. Teachers overwhelmingly expressed dissatisfaction with methods of handling leaves of absence and complained about the absence of policies of convincing quality.

Although the situation has improved, leaves of absence still constitute significant aspects of personnel management in schools.

### *Joining Teachers' Organizations Is a Problem*

Teachers are disturbed over the question of joining teachers' organizations. Paying dues to local teachers' organizations, to county or regional organizations, to state organizations, to national organizations becomes an item of considerable expense to many teachers. They frequently pay their dues with grumbling comments about returns which they do or do not get from membership. One's first reaction is to compare the small amount paid by teachers to their organizations with the amounts paid by laborers to their unions, but such reactions are usually fruitless.

Perhaps more important than dues is the conflict among teachers regarding the appropriateness or inappropriateness of joining certain organizations. In some communities there is bitter rivalry between the NEA (National Education Association) and the AFT (American Federation of Teachers). One can easily get excited discussion from teachers concerning the relative advantages of joining the state teachers' association and the NEA. Some will assert that teachers should join the AFT, which is affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. Others assert that teachers should belong to local teachers' leagues, which are unaffiliated.

<sup>13</sup> Weber, *op. cit.*, Chap. IX, "Leaves of Absence and Teacher Growth," pp. 211-215.



Many superintendents have lost heavily in the controversy between teachers' unions and other forms of teacher organization. No discussion of personnel problems could be complete without examining the nature and purposes of teachers' organizations and the role these organizations play in education.

### *Teacher Health and Recreation Is a Problem*

Teacher health is important to teachers, but it is even more important in terms of its effects upon the children in the schools. "Evidence seems to indicate that, in general, teachers enjoy as good health as do people in other vocations."<sup>14</sup> Even so, evidence also supports the assertion that from 15 to 20 per cent of the teachers in the public schools lack the vigorous type of health which is most conducive to a good teaching-learning situation.<sup>15</sup>

It is not sufficient that the health of teachers should be merely as good as the health of those in other occupations. Because of the important effect which teacher health has upon the young, teachers' health should be considerably better than that of people in other vocations. It is not in the interest of the public good that one out of every five teachers is short of the amount of energy essential to effective teaching.

In such sports as college football, those in charge frequently insist upon 100 per cent as a health index. Certainly the teaching of children in the classrooms of our schools is no less important than the program for athletes.

Studies indicate that as teachers grow older, the sickness rate increases rapidly. Since many teachers are persons who have passed the age of forty-five, teacher health for them becomes a serious problem.<sup>16</sup>

### *Need for Social Status Is a Problem*

Many teachers are very much concerned over their belief that teachers lack social status. Although many teachers enjoy their work and prefer to continue as teachers, there is a rather general feeling among teachers that their profession is not as highly regarded as it should be. Actually, teachers often assiduously hide their identity as teachers when mingling with people because of the opprobrium which they feel is attached to teaching. The too frequently heard exclamation, "Oh, she's just a school teacher" has had ill effects upon teaching as a whole. This is an important problem for personnel administration in our schools.

<sup>14</sup> Quoted by permission, from E. W. Anderson and W. P. Cushman, in W. S. Monroe (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 1434, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1950.

<sup>15</sup> *Fit to Teach*, Ninth Yearbook of the Department of Classroom Teachers, p. 276, NEA, Washington, 1938.

<sup>16</sup> Anderson and Cushman, in Monroe, *op. cit.*



*Professional Ethics Is a Problem*

Another important problem from the point of view of both teachers and boards of education is that of professional ethics. Many individuals and a considerable number of teachers' organizations have been concerned with developing codes of ethics for teachers. Some organizations have great faith in codes of ethics. Some teachers and administrators are inclined to discount their value. A few are so skeptical that they believe codes of ethics may be screens behind which unethical people can hide. At the present time, the most commonly accepted code of ethics is that developed by the NEA and readopted by various state associations and other organizations of teachers.<sup>17</sup> What should be done in the local school system regarding professional ethics? Who should develop a code of ethics?

*Teacher Tenure Is a Problem*

The absence of teacher-tenure laws in some states and the absence of tenure policies in many school systems are matters of concern to teachers. Strangely enough there appears to be a conflict between teachers who support tenure provisions and the minority who think that there is little value in them. Many laymen and boards of education, of course, are opposed to tenure for teachers on various grounds. There is some evidence to indicate that boards of education and school administrators in school situations where tenure has been provided favor the continued contractual service policies.<sup>18</sup> Among 100 such board members and 500 such superintendents 45 per cent of the board members and 84 per cent of the superintendents favored tenure. The chief state school officers in forty of the forty-eight states were of the opinion that the absence of tenure had bad results in terms of curriculum development, quality of instruction, and staff morale.<sup>19</sup> Teachers frequently complain of lack of social status in communities, and in many cases they attribute this condition to fear, on the part of teachers, that participation in community activities will adversely affect their chances for reappointment. Because of this reaction by teachers, the problem of tenure becomes important. On the other hand, school-board members and some school administrators express fears that teacher tenure is likely to cause stagnation among teachers and is likely to freeze less desirable teachers in the profession. Teacher tenure is a personnel problem which should be examined.

<sup>17</sup> *Report of the Committee on Professional Ethics*, NEA, Washington, 1946, 1947, 1948.

<sup>18</sup> *Opinions on Tenure: School Board Members and Superintendents*, NEA Committee on Tenure, Washington, 1939.

<sup>19</sup> V. E. Anderson, "Status and Trends of Teacher Tenure in the United States," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 27:411-419 (1941).

### *Other Problems Are Important*

Poor living conditions, poor rapport between janitors and teachers, inappropriate policies concerning employment of substitute teachers, and irritations caused by poor management procedures constitute problems needing solution. Teachers report that they are irritated and upset over such matters as inadequate instructional materials, poor plant facilities, poorly arranged class schedules, failure of administrators to define duties of teachers, requests to participate in community activities without recognition by school authorities, and more or less intimate personal problems.

In an effort to locate the personnel problems which demand solution, the writer secured from nearly five hundred teachers in the public schools in the years of 1950, 1951, and 1952 information concerning problems which they considered to be in need of more adequate solution.<sup>20</sup> The teachers were requested to make lists of the problems which they considered to be most important. The respondents were requested to be frank and brief and were assured that their anonymity would be carefully guarded. Each teacher was requested to list the problems in the order of their importance as he saw them.

Replies from 473 teachers from eighty-one school systems were received. If a problem was listed among the first three in importance, it was weighted as 3; if it was among the second three, it was weighted as 2; and if it was below sixth, it was rated as 1. The problems as seen by nearly five hundred teachers, are listed below in order of their weighted frequency.

#### PERSONNEL PROBLEMS OF 473 TEACHERS

- Salaries and salary schedules.
- Orientation of new teachers.
- Educating teachers in service.
- Selection of new teachers.
- Teacher participation in administration.
- Evaluation of teacher services.
- Teaching load, including extracurricular load.
- Transfers, promotions, and dismissals.
- Relationships with nonteaching staff.
- Substitute-teacher service.
- Leaves of absence.
- Joining teachers' organizations.
- Teacher tenure.
- Attacks upon teachers and teaching.

<sup>20</sup> Inquiry made among teachers pursuing advanced and graduate courses, University of Connecticut, July, 1950 through August, 1952, including teachers attending summer sessions of 1950, 1951, and 1952.



Professional ethics and attitudes.

Other problems (usually more intimately personal in nature).

Regarding salaries and salary schedules, the teachers complained that the salary schedule recognized only two factors, namely, years of teaching experience and academic degrees or college credits earned over and above degrees earned. They seemed to feel that there was little incentive to become creative or artistic in teaching. A second complaint was that teachers with dependents were unable, in many cases, to make ends meet unless they sought supplementary employment after school, on Saturdays, and during vacation periods. A third complaint was that salary schedules represented the thinking of a few top people who did little more than accept the general pattern of salary scheduling used by other school systems. It seemed to be generally acknowledged that nothing very creative has been done about salary scheduling in public education. The plans of school administrators, teachers' organizations, and boards of education have been, in the eyes of teachers, more the product of habit and tradition than the product of creative, intelligent problem solving.

Comments on the subject of orientation of teachers indicate, in general, that the whole task of orientation was done by top administrators and principals with little or no help from other members of the staff. Plans, said the teachers, were devised in the main by administrators, and these plans were carried out by directives from the top. The teachers seemed to feel that if teachers had a larger share in devising plans of action for orientation of new staff members, the program would be much more effective and acceptable.

The teachers felt strongly on the general subject of in-service education. There was a general feeling that teachers ought to grow in service, that teachers should become better teachers, that teachers themselves should be much more concerned with devising more appropriate and more effective techniques for improvement of teachers in service. But the reaction to such steps as requiring that all teachers take an extension course, go to summer school, or participate in a workshop was not very favorable.

Only 16 per cent of the teachers reported that teachers had any part in the selection of new staff members. This job was done by superintendents, principals, supervisors, and department heads. By and large the teachers felt that they had little opportunity to participate in the selection of new teachers and that they were left out when it came to selection of those with whom they were to work. Since the teachers listed this as one of their more important personnel problems, it is important that a discussion of ways and means to ensure more teacher participation in selection be presented.

Teacher evaluation was considered to be an important personnel prob-



lem by the teachers because they were not convinced that such devices as merit ratings, supervisory ratings, and current practices in their respective schools were valid procedures. It seemed to be the general conclusion that most of the existing attempts to evaluate teachers resulted in suspicion, lowered morale, and general dissatisfaction. At the same time, the teachers themselves admitted that the public was entitled to know all there was to know about the effectiveness of teaching in the schools. Thus the problem of evaluation of teaching looms large as a personnel problem.

On the subject of teaching load, the teachers were concerned about such things as large class size, absence of free periods, excessive numbers of classes, too many different preparations, extracurricular assignments, and extra pay for some teachers assigned to supervise such extracurricular activities as athletics, school plays, yearbooks, school magazines, school bands and orchestras. Many teachers resented the fact that they were assigned extracurricular duties without financial reward, while others within the system were assigned other activities to which were attached attractive monetary advantages. This problem appears to be a most disturbing one in many schools.

The problems of promotions, dismissals, resignations, and tenure were grouped by the author in studying the returns from teachers because of the similarity of reactions. Many teachers felt that the absence of any announced or accepted policies regarding these problems was one of the chief causes of difficulty. Others felt that there were no real tenure provisions, some were dissatisfied with dismissal policies, others were deeply concerned over the policies with respect to transfer of teachers within the system, and still others were definitely upset over policies with respect to promotions. On the last point too large a number felt that appointments to such posts as assistant principalship, principalship, supervisor, and specialist were too dependent upon "political connections," personal friendship, and similar conditions. Since the teachers were quite disturbed over existing practices in their schools in these areas, it is very clear that an examination of the problem is required.

Leaves of absence for teachers were reported as one important area of discontent. Many teachers, although quite pleased with gains made within recent years in the area of cumulative sick leave, were still concerned over sick leave as a problem because they felt that some teachers abuse sick-leave policies and because most policies for granting sick leave do not adequately provide for long-extended periods of illness likely to occur among teachers of more advanced age.

Although handling the problems pertaining to sick leave was more frequently mentioned by the teachers, there was much concern over the fact that very few schools had any kind of systematic program for grant-



ing leaves of absence with or without pay for purposes of travel, doing graduate work, writing, or engaging in work experience other than teaching. Judging from the reactions of teachers, no study of the management of personnel problems could be complete without making inquiry to discover the most promising practices in this regard.

Teachers' organizations, and activity in such organizations, seem to be of major concern to many teachers. There are those who feel that teachers' organizations are of great value and that every teacher should be active in them. Other teachers espouse the cause of individualism to the extent that they do not believe that teachers should be active in teachers' organizations. In some cases teachers appeared to fear that active participation in teachers' organizations jeopardized their chances for advancement and for increases in salary in so far as administrative officers and boards of education were concerned. Particularly was this true where teachers' unions were involved or where teachers' leagues or units of state education associations were actively engaged in attempting to secure higher salaries for teachers. The question of state teachers' associations and the NEA versus teachers' unions seemed to present a problem to many teachers.

Problems of health, recreation, and leisure were considered important ones by many teachers. These problems seemed to be related, of course, to inadequate salary plans, to inadequate sick-leave programs, and to lack of planning in the area of appropriate leisure activities for teachers. Teachers in general seem to be a healthy group of people physically, but there is some question concerning the mental health of many in the profession. Many teachers reported that special activities such as teacher parties, sports programs for teachers, dinners, dances, hobby clubs, theater parties, informal "gab sessions," and planned summer outings were provided for teachers, but these same teachers felt that too small a percentage of the teachers were really helped by such activities.

Many teachers seemed to feel that the teacher in a community often does not have the social prestige which is desirable. While superintendents, principals, supervisors, coaches, band directors, and coaches of dramatics often are in the public spotlight and as a result enjoy a high degree of social prestige, the classroom teacher is often relegated to a very inferior position socially. Teachers cited the fact that school administrators usually belong to service clubs, take time off for lunch and stay away until one-thirty or two o'clock one day per week, and otherwise engage in community contacts "during school time," but that teachers are usually, if not always, denied such opportunities. One teacher reported that while her principal, a woman, could leave school to attend meetings of the local woman's club, not one of the other teachers, most of whom were dues-paying members, was ever permitted to leave school to attend



one of the meetings. Examining the frank replies of teachers, one was struck with the general reaction of teachers to the effect that only those in positions of authority over other teachers were privileged to acquire social status by means of wide participation in "accepted community-service groups." Teachers who participated in church activities such as teaching Sunday-school classes thought such activity was beneficial to them as persons and to the group as a whole, but social prestige did not seem to accrue from such participation. Similarly being a scoutmaster or girl-scout leader was fruitful, but not in proportionate amounts to other activities in so far as social prestige is concerned. In view of the current thinking regarding the great importance of "feeling that one's job is socially important," teachers have a problem, apparently, in acquiring that feeling. What can be done?

Teachers feel that some in their ranks are unethical in their dealings with other teachers and with the profession as a whole. There are teachers, apparently, who will "underbid" other teachers for jobs, who are quite willing to get a Master of Arts degree as cheaply and as quickly as possible merely to be placed on a higher bracket in the salary schedule. There are, also, those who will seek advancement through "political pull," "playing up to superiors," "engaging in particularly popular community activities," and so on. Teachers as a group feel the need of a more effective, and distinctly more operative, code of ethics for teachers. Some concrete suggestions on this score are presented elsewhere in the book.

Teacher participation in administration seemed to be a particular problem to many teachers. Those teachers who mentioned it as a personnel problem fell, largely, into two categories: first, those teachers who were working in school systems where much was said about teacher participation, but where little if anything was ever done; second, those teachers who were working in school systems where teacher participation in administration was openly opposed by administrators and/or boards of education. One teacher wrote as follows:

We're getting mighty tired of being admonished to participate in formulation of policies only to have our suggestions, after considerable effort on our part, filed in the wastebasket and never brought to the board of education. Our salary committee, appointed by our superintendent with approval of the board, worked a solid year on a proposal to the board. At the appointed time our superintendent, an ardent verbal advocate of teacher participation, made his own proposal to the board, ignored ours, and informed the board that our proposal was "impractical" and that in his judgment it should not be considered.

Problems so vital to teachers as the above demand discussion. How can teachers become a part of the policy-making machinery without having



every teacher attempting to be superintendent or principal? Both teachers and administrators are anxious to have the answer.

Teachers have many problems related to living accommodations. In many communities effort is made to make information available concerning possible living quarters for teachers. In other communities nothing is done for teachers in this respect, and teachers find themselves hunting living accommodations outside the community. Single teachers, married teachers, teachers with families all seem to have problems of a serious nature in this regard. Certainly a teacher who cannot find comfortable and acceptable living quarters is not likely to become a very happy person in his or her schoolwork. Related to this problem, too, is discovering suitable places to eat. Many teachers complain about eating facilities, particularly in more rural locations. What should be done? This problem, too, demands more complete discussion.

To the unobserving person the problem of teacher-janitor relations does not loom large, but to the experienced teacher or administrator the situation is decidedly different. A teacher who "gets along" with the janitor is the recipient of many rewards. Her room is better taken care of; she has little difficulty in arranging for special events; she enjoys support from many people in the community who hear about her through the janitor. On the other hand, the teacher who fails to establish rapport with the janitor is likely to find herself fighting for little services, talked about by pupils and by the community. Many teachers have experienced most unhappy teaching experiences largely because of janitors, and some school principals have lost their jobs because of them. One might assume that this problem could be solved by firing the janitor, but the difficulty is not that simple.

In many communities the substitute-teacher service is so poorly managed that serious problems are created. Teachers who are absent because of illness return to find well-developed plans wrecked, discipline undermined, work habits of pupils forgotten, and a general state of disunity and disorganization. To the teacher thus returning, perhaps recuperating from illness, such a situation is conducive only to retardation of recovery. What is worse, to the conscientious teacher there is a feeling of disappointment and a source of worry. Substitute-teacher service can be and should be improved as one aspect of a sound program for dealing with personnel problems.

When teachers mentioned personal problems, there seemed to be no limit to the nature of them. Some seemed silly and ridiculous to the inquirer, but to the teacher these were doubtless real and important. In a large measure, personnel problems *are* personal problems. Some cognizance needs to be taken of the need for developing the kind of admin-



istrative machinery which will make it easy for teachers to take their intimate personal problems to appropriate persons or agencies for help.

Unless those who manage our schools can find a more effective way of solving the problems of those who work in the schools, the personnel is likely to lose faith in the effectiveness of democracy. Our school managers have it within their power to enlist the creative abilities of teachers and other workers in the schools to the end that some better solutions to problems of the personnel can cooperatively be found. To do this will create more abiding faith in the democratic form of control; to fail spells out the first great collapse of our great American dream.

### SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

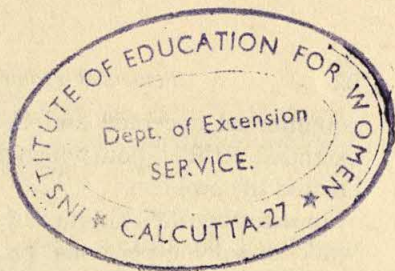
1. Interview ten teachers in your school, asking them this question: What personnel problems in our school are most in need of solution? Summarize your findings and write a brief statement concerning your findings.
2. Make a list of personnel policies in your school which have been found to be effective for improving teacher morale.
3. Why is it that teachers and the public so often disagree on the subject of teacher tenure?
4. Describe the orientation program in your school which is designed to help new teachers.
5. Which of the problems of personnel introduced in this chapter seems most significant to you? Give your reasons.
6. Do teachers in your school have "outside jobs"? What are the effects of such outside work on teachers? On pupils?

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## CHAPTER 2    *A Frame of Reference*

No discussion of personnel problems of teachers could intelligently be presented without first making clear the values which form the framework for the discussion. Hence one of the first obligations of the writer is to bring into bold relief those underlying assumptions which are to give direction and structure to subsequent discussion. One of the greatest obstacles to the development of sound plans of action for the solution of problems of professional personnel in the schools is the complacency of the typical teacher or administrator. There are teachers and administrators who pursue their work as though it were merely a pleasant career. Undoubtedly such members of the profession have made many wholesome, worthwhile contributions to teaching, but they have never become leaders in the challenging task of teaching children.

Complacency is, in a large measure, the net result of failure to make commitments to basic values which are so deep-rooted as to act, constantly, as guidelines for present and future action. It is for this reason that the professional teachers should make commitments to basic values before attempting to develop, maintain, and implement plans of action for dealing with the personnel problems of the teaching staff.

There are people who, without concern for specific techniques by which a basic value may be achieved, project values or ends and argue for their adoption. Still others, sometimes referred to as "fanatics," attempt to achieve any immediate end or goal by impulsive efforts without concern for the cost either to themselves or to others. Opportunists use whatever techniques seem to be easiest at the moment without reference to basic values or to accepted goals. Some, on the contrary, insist upon dogmatic values being adopted without concerning themselves with the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the devices used to achieve the values adopted. The social scientist, however, assumes values as hypotheses to be tested in action in the actual situations that characterize living or working in a community. Such people believe that a value is a belief or



commitment accepted and chosen by consensus after free, public, and extended deliberation which has been open to all those whose needs created the problem.

In asserting the existence of basic values for use in building the framework for solving personnel problems of the teaching staff, the writer has chosen to select those values which we in the United States have come to accept by general consent. It is not contended that we have achieved our goals, but it is asserted that the odds are very great, perhaps 100 to 1 or better, that all people concerned with public education in these United States would accept the four basic values presented in this chapter.

### *Health Is a Basic Value*

There can be little doubt that teachers, administrators, parents, and the great body of citizens in our country believe that health is a basic value. Such programs as the Blue Cross, the antipolio crusade, the heart campaign, public support of hospitals, health legislation, insistence upon health programs in most schools, and thousands of other actions by our people indicate that we are warranted in our assertion that health is considered to be a basic value by our people. For this reason it is certainly right to assert: *Plans for solving personnel problems of the teaching staff should be such as to establish an environment in which there is a maximum opportunity for engendering the health of the staff.*

Health is not only a function of the physical environment, such as proper nutrition, exercise, and rest; it is also a function of the emotional status of the individual. It has been generally recognized that emotions affect mental health, but it is not so well known that physical health is greatly affected by emotional experiences. If a teacher is to be successful, he must have the right sort of emotional effect upon the children he serves. In the same way and for the same reasons, personnel policies must have the right sort of emotional effect upon the professional staff.

Leadership in personnel management should be fundamentally and continuously concerned with the mental and physical health of teachers because teachers who rise above the role of modified baby sitters must have more drive, more endurance, and more vigor of body than the ordinary person. The teacher's effectiveness is primarily dependent upon his own enthusiasm for his work, upon his own mental and physical health, upon his own strength and robustness.

Leadership which fails to recognize the fundamental significance of building teacher health is almost certain to disintegrate for lack of whole-hearted support of teachers themselves. A teaching staff which is energetic vitalizes the classroom work and vitalizes the children of the school. Apathy, chronic fatigue, sluggishness, frustration over school policies,



frustration resulting from lack of knowledge about one's job, frustration from lack of community recognition, frustration from no sense of belonging—these are dangerous foes which the school must defeat by means of satisfying and sound policies of personnel administration.

School children themselves have cast the mold in which the raw materials of educational leadership should be poured. They have told us, ten thousand strong, that teachers should be cheerful, happy, good-natured, jolly, with a sense of humor, friendly, companionable, interested in and understanding children, patient, kindly, sympathetic; not cross, crabby, grouchy, nagging, or sarcastic.<sup>1</sup> These qualities are functions of the mental and physical health of teachers, and every plan for solving personnel problems of the professional staff must take the mental and physical health of teachers into account.

The occurrence of marked anxiety, fear, and frustration among teachers is certain to influence, adversely, the educational effectiveness of the schools. It colors the personal relations of these teachers with children, with each other, with parents, and with administrative personnel.

Personnel relationships are crucial in determining the influence of teachers upon developing children. Teachers are not merely machines by which information is made available to children. On the contrary, teachers as persons constitute the most significant active parts of the school environment of children. Usually the intellectual aspects of the school are secondary in importance to the personal relationships which exist.

The chief obstacles to the mental health of teachers, according to Prescott<sup>2</sup> are:

1. Inhibitive rules and regulations.
2. Poor conditions of employment.
3. Lack of recreation for teachers.
4. Occupational insecurity.
5. Inadequate financial return.
6. Insecurity due to pressure groups.
7. Lack of wholesome relationships between teachers.
8. Lack of wholesome relationships between teachers and administrators or supervisors.
9. Lack of wholesome relationships with people of the community.
10. Lack of adequate professional organizations.

Unfortunately there are too many teachers whose services are of doubtful value when measured in terms of emotional influence upon children. There are teachers who extend prejudice, superstition, and un-

<sup>1</sup> Frank W. Hart, *Teachers and Teaching*, pp. 131-132, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1934.

<sup>2</sup> Daniel A. Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process*, pp. 280-281, American Council on Education, Washington, 1938.



reasoned emotionalized attitudes in their teaching. Others cause children to be insensitive to, or unaware of, aesthetic or ethical values. Still others show tendencies toward moodiness, sulkiness, sarcasm, criticism, bullying, domination, and lack of sense of humor. And then there are those suffering from unresolved emotional conflicts who seek compensation from venting their feelings upon children.

Any program designed to solve the personnel problems of the professional staff should take mental and physical health of the staff into account. Fatigue and tension in a teacher are related directly to the number of pupils with whom a teacher must deal, to the number of periods or hours per day he must be in the classroom, to the fullness of his acquaintance with the purposes and goals of the school, to the type of administrative organization, to the personal relationships existing with other members of the staff, to adequacy of financial return, to the sort of information he has about the school and about the children, and to the personal relationships which have been established or encouraged.

Actually, the maturity and integration of personality of teachers are most crucial for the all-around development of children. The personality make-up of the teacher is crucial. Unfortunately a large number of teachers are not well adjusted and are not suited in their total personality make-up for the job they have to do. Fortunately, however, this situation is, to a marked degree, remediable if personnel problems are approached as a fundamental obligation of administrators.

Costly schoolroom equipment has questionable value in the hands of overburdened, tired, anemic, unhealthy teachers. Equipment, though modern, can be as useless and unstimulating in the hands of such teachers as old-fashioned slates and ancient maps. The dynamic, enthusiastic, healthy teacher is essential. Only a teacher free enough from ill health and emotional conflicts to be intelligently and constructively aware of the emotional needs of children can meet the responsibilities of educating the young in these times of high speed, atomic war, deep-seated fears, and serious frustration. We need teachers who are in the best of health in order that they may have the capacity for energy output demanded by our times.

Industries are commonly equipping themselves with medical departments to look after the health of employees and to advise management concerning personnel policies which are likely to foster employee health. Government agencies are requiring physical examinations as a prerequisite to employment and are seriously at work trying to discover what changes in personnel management should be made to ensure greater continued health of employees. Surely teacher health is as important to the nation as general employee health.

Personnel policies should seek to develop, encourage, and maintain,



on the part of teachers, a healthy outlook and wholesome point of view on life and upon teaching as a profession; well-balanced attitudes which are characterized by such terms as harmony, patience, understanding, and enthusiasm. The disgruntled, sour, sarcastic, sharp, bitter teacher is in a state of mental ill health that is damaging to all children. The suspicious teacher who mistrusts co-workers and administrative personnel, and who has little faith in people, does untold damage to children. Truly, the schools need teachers who maintain a healthy outlook on life, who possess insight into their own ways of meeting life situations, whose lives give evidence of purposefulness, faith in people, and relatedness to a worthy professional cause. Mental health should be approached as a positive obligation by those who establish policies for dealing with personnel problems. Mental-hygiene considerations should govern the general atmosphere, the processes, and the procedures of the school with respect to reciprocal relations of teachers, school administrators, parents, and children.

If plans of action are to be conducive to the health of teachers, the following criteria should be observed in developing programs for dealing with personnel problems of the staff:

1. Plans should be directly related to the problems of the personnel as seen by them.
2. Plans should be concerned with the development of teacher personality.
3. Plans should meet the specific needs of teachers.
4. Plans should provide opportunities for teachers to recover from illness, accident, disease, and other disabilities without subjecting them to fear, anxiety, and worry.
5. Plans should free teachers from emotional conflicts.
6. Plans should encourage teachers to face their problems realistically and to decide for themselves upon a sound and rational way of meeting them.
7. Plans should free teachers from uncertainty.
8. Plans should be designed to develop a sense of belonging to the staff and to the community.
9. Plans should provide for an adequate, positive program of recreation and leisuretime activities.
10. Plans should be developed to secure suitable and comfortable living quarters for teachers.
11. Plans should develop a feeling in the public mind of high regard for the teaching profession.
12. Plans should provide for adjusting teaching load so that teachers have the time and energy to participate in activities other than classroom work.
13. Plans should be directed toward improving the teaching environment, including such items as temperature in classrooms, lighting, janitorial service, secretarial service, rest rooms, libraries, and lunchrooms.
14. Plans should include provision for leaves of absence with remuneration



for recovery from illness, for rest, for improvement professionally, and for travel.

15. Plans should be devised to give teachers feelings of security and status in the community.
16. Plans should include rewarding the teacher financially so that it would be unnecessary for the teacher to seek outside employment in order to meet the basic economic needs.

### *Mutuality Is a Value*

The second basic value to which the people of the United States have made commitment is concerned with cooperation. If there is any one aspect of life in the United States which is unique, it is our professed faith in the principle of cooperation. Our Constitution and our Bill of Rights were established on a new thesis, namely, that the people, acting as a cooperative unit, could solve the problems of the people. The odds are 100 to 1 that the people of America believe in and desire to keep our basic machinery of providing for the solution of our problems by submitting the plans of action, and the names of people who are to execute them, to the people for decision.

As a people we deny the thesis that one man or even a small group of men should tell us what we should do, what we can do, and under what conditions we should act. We do, to be sure, delegate duties and responsibilities, but we also demand the right to recall those who do not assume the duties and responsibilities as we think they should.

There are places in the world where the people involuntarily follow the orders and dictates of a small group of men, where people work like bees in a sort of mechanistic hive, ruled by forces external to themselves. But in the United States the odds are at least 100 to 1 that we would deny the value of such arrangements.

Hence, it seems clear that as a people we would agree: *The program for dealing with personnel problems of the teaching staff in our schools should promote the kind of environment which is most conducive to mutuality of all those concerned with the educative process.*

Courtis<sup>3</sup> has listed eight types of cooperation which commonly exist. We should examine them at this point.

1. Cooperation as reaction, where mechanical forces impel cooperative action which has no motivation and which has no effect upon those who experienced it.
2. Involuntary cooperation, which is motivated by a desire for individual achievement and has little effect upon those who experience it.
3. Impulsive cooperation, which comes from purely impulsive sources so com-

<sup>3</sup> S. A. Courtis, E. T. McSwain, and Nellie C. Morrison, *Cooperation Principles and Practices*, Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, p. 21, NEA, Washington, 1938.



- mon in mob action and which results in varied and indeterminate effects upon those who experience it.
4. Individualistic cooperation, in which individuals divide the work motivated by the desire for immediate achievement, and which results in personal satisfaction and friendship.
  5. Assistance involving bargaining, exploitation, compromise, compulsion, and good will, which stems from the desire for mutual benefit, selfish benefit, necessity, and which results in personal satisfaction, indignation, contempt, impatience, resentment, fear, hatred, revenge, friendship, or affection.
  6. The cooperation following competency, which depends upon inferiors following a recognized expert and which results in respect.
  7. The cooperation of leadership motivated by desire for individual and social progress, which results in respect, honor, and devotion.
  8. Democratic cooperation, or mutuality, which is motivated by a desire for complete self-expression through the group and group welfare which results in creative growth, social sensitivity, joy, security, and love.

Expanding upon democratic cooperation, the same writers describe it as follows:<sup>4</sup>

1. Every member is group conscious and thinks of himself as an agent of the group.
2. Each member carries full responsibility for leadership and creative thinking.
3. Officers and organizations exist only for the purpose of coordination, execution, and record.
4. Each member would will for every other member that member's highest good and give freely of his own services to help others secure that highest good.
5. His own wishes are not put aside but are given relative value by the group.
6. Leadership would be a function, not a person, and would pass from person to person as anyone had a creative suggestion to make.

Mere division of labor in a school situation is not synonymous with mutuality. The typical school divides the labor of teaching by assigning to certain staff members the task of teaching children through the medium of separate subject matter or grade organizations, but such division may easily result in forms of cooperation which are not characterized by mutuality.

Efficiency in production often demands division of labor. But it is reduced to a mechanical routine unless workers see the technical, intellectual and social relationships involved in what they do, and engage in their work because of the motivation furnished by such perceptions.<sup>5</sup>

Methods for solving personnel problems of teachers must break down the traditional notion that interests of children, purposes of the teachers,

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 22-23.

<sup>5</sup> Quoted by permission, from John Dewey, *Democracy and Education*, pp. 98-99, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1924.



and hopes of parents are unrelated and different. The principle of mutuality demands that teachers, pupils, and parents work together to devise plans of action which may be used in the solution of their common problems.

A society which makes provision for participation in its good of all its members on equal terms and which secures flexible readjustment of its institutions through interaction of the different forms of associated life is in so far democratic. Such a society must have a type of education which gives individuals a personal interest in social relationships and control, and the habits of mind which secure social changes without introducing disorder.<sup>6</sup>

There is all the difference in the world between schools where administrators establish the goals and those where all the teachers are given the opportunity to share in creating, affirming, and altering them. "Leadership is known by the personalities it enriches, not by those it dominates or captivates."<sup>7</sup>

Hughes,<sup>8</sup> discussing the principles underlying mutuality of action, wrote:

Progress will not be so great unless there is a special setting in which there is encouraged such interactions among teachers as will lead to change and will result in some coordinated group action. The most effective type of staff organization calls for an administrative arrangement whereby the teachers are a social unit working together in such a way as to promote their own development. In other words, growth of the teacher is the central object of the organization.

Calvert<sup>9</sup> asserts that:

Since growth results from experience, there must be free interplay of ideas, freedom of thought, and freedom to try out and experiment with new ideas on the part of the teaching staff. Only an alert, sensitive disciplined intelligence on the job can properly weigh the facts and render a decision and this kind of a person is best developed in a democratic atmosphere through guided experience.

Mutuality implies the provision of opportunities which permit persons to make distinctive contributions to the solution of teachers' problems. It demands that persons who are expected to implement policies will have had complete opportunity to participate in the formulation of them. Participation leading to mutuality means an actual sharing in planning and in making decisions.

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 115. Quoted by permission.

<sup>7</sup> Quoted by permission, from Ordway Tead, *The Art of Leadership*, p. 81, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1935.

<sup>8</sup> J. M. Hughes, "Principles Underlying the Staff Organization of a High School," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 22:184-191 (March, 1937).

<sup>9</sup> E. I. Calvert, "Democratic and Creative Supervision in Principle and Practice," *Educational Method*, 18:54 (November, 1938).



If mutuality is to be achieved in dealing with personnel problems, the first obligation of the school is to create an environment that will make mutuality not only possible but inevitable. The administrator should look upon himself as a partner of the staff, of the student body, and of the parents in a distinctly valuable social enterprise. He should be willing to regard himself as first of all a teacher whose chief function is to be a leader.

If plans for dealing with personnel problems are to be conducive to mutuality, it is obvious that in the final analysis they must be created by the faculty. Teachers should have a share in the selection of their colleagues; they should investigate, study, and cast a final vote which will count the same as the school administrator's. It means that teachers should select committees rather than that the administrator appoint them, for by so doing he may, in the minds of teachers at least, load the dice for administrative ends rather than achieve mutual purposes.

Social psychologists have investigated the effect of cooperative effort in comparison with working alone. In general, these investigations have shown that cooperative effort acts as a stimulus to more intense efforts. Allport<sup>10</sup> found that subjects worked together with greater intensity than when they were alone, and this finding is supported with almost complete consistency by all the investigators who have studied the problem.<sup>11</sup>

Maller,<sup>12</sup> in an extensive and well-controlled investigation in the field of motivation, found that cooperation in organized groups gave greater efficiency than individual motivation.

Courtis, McSwain, and Morrison<sup>13</sup> assert that:

Progressive administrators and teachers are coming to believe that the only way to prepare the oncoming generation to live successfully in a Democracy is to give them the opportunity to practice Democracy in the classroom, and that teachers, then, for their part, cannot develop skill in cooperation successfully unless they too are members of a school system which operates democratically from top to bottom.

Discussing specific techniques which might be used to enable a teacher to serve skillfully as a member of a cooperating group, the same authors state:<sup>14</sup>

<sup>10</sup> F. H. Allport, "The Influence of the Group upon Association and Thought," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 3:159-182 (1920).

<sup>11</sup> Charles C. Peters, "Social Facilitation," in W. S. Monroe (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 1122, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1940.

<sup>12</sup> J. B. Maller, *Cooperation and Competition*, Teachers College Contribution to Education 382, Columbia University, New York, 1939.

<sup>13</sup> S. A. Courtis, E. T. McSwain, and Nellie C. Morrison, *Teachers and Cooperation*, Report of Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, p. 34, NEA, Washington, November, 1937.

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 35.



Democratic cooperation makes severe demands upon an individual who is accustomed to individualistic thinking and action. He will need aggressively (1) to exercise initiative and carry the responsibility for the group, (2) to be group minded, (3) to censor his thinking and action in terms of group regulations, (4) to get rid of all personal sensitivity to criticism, neglect, etc. He needs to remember always that the group will succeed or fail to the degree that he does his part.

Prescott<sup>15</sup> believes that the effect of democratic cooperation upon personality is marked. He states:

The contrasts between autocratically and democratically administered systems are marked, in teachers' attitudes, in their own sense of personal worth and professional role and in their readiness to vary requirements and procedures to meet the needs of individual children.

If one of our basic values is the development of personnel policies conducive to mutuality, the following criteria for establishing such policies should be observed:

1. They should be developed by the entire staff or its own designated agents with the right to review and change left in the hands of the staff.
2. They should provide for participation of people of the community.
3. They should provide for participation of children in direct proportion to their ability to foresee consequences.
4. They should provide for teacher, parent, board participation in planning, action, and evaluation.
5. They should consider the suggestions and ideas of all members of the professional staff and weigh each such suggestion or idea on its merits.
6. They should encourage teachers to share with each other, with parents, with administrative agents, with boards of education, and with the lay public their own thinking or plans of action for solving personnel problems.
7. They should result in wider and wider staff participation in formulation of policies which affect teachers.

### *Effective Use of Intelligence Is a Value*

We have at this point asserted that two basic values have been accepted by our people with odds of better than 100 to 1. The first of these was health and the second was mutuality. A third value which has been commonly accepted by the people in the United States implies that children should be taught to think. One could scarcely find a man or woman in America who would not answer "yes" to the question: Do you believe that the schools should teach children to think? During the 1952 presidential campaign the newspapers were full of such slogans as "Read, Think, Vote." Radio, television, and circulars in 1952 were continually

<sup>15</sup> Prescott, *op. cit.*, p. 34.



reminding our people that in the United States the very life of our nation depends upon the thinking of people. Because as a people we accept, by odds even greater than 100 to 1, that people *should* solve their problems by thinking, a third basic value is presented here to give structure to discussion of personnel problems: *The program for solving personnel problems of the teaching staff should seek the creation of an environment which is conducive to the utilization of intelligence in the solving of personnel problems.*

Effective problem solving requires thinking in which inquiry plays the leading role. There are ways of solving problems which are not based upon utilization of intelligence, but such methods are not desirable in the long run. Some practitioners in education persist in relying upon habit, tradition, emotion, and prejudice as the chief means for the solution of problems, but the American people are noted for their general acceptance of the belief that intelligence *should* be used in the solution of problems.

The use of intelligence in solving problems involves experience, it involves habits as controls of behavior resulting from prior experience, it involves habits as functions of the individual in reaction to the environment, and it involves habits developed as a result of the interaction of the environment and the individual. Thus problems which arise out of experiences of the present stimulate inquiry into the facts which pertain to the problem. Inquiry into the facts in the case leads to careful scrutiny of them for the purpose of locating the core of the trouble. Then additional information is secured, and in the light of new information, plans of action for solving the problem are proposed for discussion by the persons making the inquiry. Each plan of action is examined in free and open discussion for the purpose of trying to locate the one idea which has the greatest likelihood of success. As a result of discussion, a need for new facts and additional information arises, and those making the inquiry proceed to search for and to discover the new facts or additional information needed. With new facts at hand that have been unearthed by further inquiry, the plans of action which seem most likely to succeed are modified and changed. This process continues until a plan of action is agreed upon which has great odds for succeeding.

Once a plan of action deemed very likely to succeed is agreed upon, experimentation with the plan is inaugurated. Experimentation usually reveals minor weaknesses in the plan which demand modification. Experimentation, therefore, is followed by careful evaluation. Evaluation usually leads to further inquiry for new facts and additional information to be used in refining the idea. New problems often arise in evaluation so those making inquiry must frequently pause to follow the previously



described procedure to iron out new difficulties encountered. This process continues until inquirers find that the problem is solved to their satisfaction.

It can readily be observed that use of intelligence requires inquiry which is continuous, tentative, and changing. *It also seems clear that such methods of thinking can take place only in an environment which stimulates free inquiry and free discussion.* To attempt to solve problems by utilization of intelligence will be fruitless if the environment is characterized by authoritarianism, command by external authority, and rigidity. Thinking emerges from mutuality.

If teachers are subjected to the authoritarian rule of superior officers in their attempt to deal with problems, their methods cease to be intelligent because the very feeling that the plan may be overruled by superior authorities serves as a block to inquiry; the result is usually a submissive statement likely to be suitable to the superior officer. To put it in another way, the teacher who is compelled to bring forth results which conform to external authority works without a free mind and cannot make free inquiry. Without free inquiry there can never be intelligent methods of problem solving.

Thus the initial step in utilizing intelligence to solve the personnel problems of the teaching staff is to make certain that the professional staff itself is guaranteed the conditions essential to free inquiry. When a staff cooperatively attacks its own problems, common experience supplies a background of mutual understanding upon which planning is based.

Intelligence is a function of action. The mathematician uses the word "function" to define a situation where a change in one variable is accompanied by a corresponding change in another. Intelligence cannot exist per se; it cannot exist as an entity in a vacuum; it is a function of action. Change in understanding the nature of a problem, if it is to be called intelligence, results in changes in action, and changes in action in turn result in new understandings.

Thus, use of intelligence becomes a dynamic, moving, growing, emerging process; it cannot be static, it must be characterized by alternations between deliberation and procedure, and it must involve experimentation. This implies that any program for dealing with personnel problems of teachers must also be dynamic, moving, growing, and emerging. What is done this year will not be the same as what was done last year or what is to be done next year. Out of the weakness discovered in last year's plans develop modifications for this year, and weaknesses discovered in the present plan will be used to make constructive changes for next year.

If intelligence is to be utilized in solving the personnel problems of the teaching staff, the following criteria may well serve to guide those responsible for the plans:



1. Programs for solving personnel problems should begin with inquiry by the entire staff to discover the problems which need solution.
2. They should include discovery of facts and information pertaining to the problems discovered.
3. They should be developed by the entire staff in a climate conducive to free inquiry, free discussion, and free deliberation.
4. They should be the result of systematic study on the part of the entire staff.
5. They should be systematically evaluated by the entire staff.
6. They should include provision for experimentation with new procedures.
7. They should release teachers from authoritarianism as they pursue solutions.
8. They should be evaluated periodically in terms of the success of plans of action in solving the problems themselves.

### *Creative Effort Is a Value*

A brief review of what has been stated thus far in this chapter will serve to form the backdrop for the last statement to be presented. It has been asserted thus far that programs for dealing with the personnel problems of the teaching staff should be conducive to health of all those concerned, that they should be conducive to mutuality or democratic co-operation, and that they should be conducive to the use of intelligence in solving the personnel problems of teachers. It is safe to assume that our citizens put a great premium upon creativity. It is part and parcel of our whole economy, of our industrial system, of our pattern of life. Consequently we can assert: *The program for dealing with personnel problems of the teaching staff should seek the creation of an environment in which there is a maximum opportunity for creative effort by teachers.*

Every plan for finding solutions to the personnel problems of teachers should strive to get something going in the thinking and action of teachers which will continue when they are off duty, outside the school walls. Creative effort involves the whole personality of the individual, and teachers who have become accustomed to thinking only in relation to textbooks, courses of study, schedules, compartmentalized programs, and authoritarian restraints are not headed toward creative effort. We need artistic teachers in our schools. The teacher who is interested in his assignment of teaching, who is interested in the process of engendering growth of children, finding great satisfaction in his work, caring for the needs of children, and exhibiting genuine affection for his job is artistically engaged.

Dewey<sup>16</sup> has written that whenever any experience stands out as *an* experience it has aesthetic quality. The program for dealing with personnel problems of the staff should be such as to cause teachers to look upon their work and see unity, form, and completeness which cause them to feel that teaching in that particular school system is *an* experi-

<sup>16</sup> John Dewey, *Art as Experience*, Minton, Balch & Co., New York, 1934.



ence which thrills and satisfies. If the teacher sees positive relationships between teaching children, administration of the school program, community support of education, and community attitudes toward the school, and if he perceives how all these carry their cumulative effects into child growth and development, then his experience is artistic. In school, the whole process of dealing with personnel problems must become one of releasing the energies of the individuals in the group so that teaching stands out as *an* experience.

There is an element of passion in artistic teaching, and the methods for dealing with personnel problems should stimulate among teachers a passion for teaching, a feeling that here is an area of work which is not only satisfying but also so passionately attractive that the individual surrenders and yields to the desire to become creative in it. To achieve such a passion for teaching, the form of association of professional staff members must be truly human. Mere gregarious gathering together for efficiency in action is inadequate. All the members of the group must participate in the development of meanings, in stating a philosophy of organization, in defining purposes, in developing plans of action, and in evaluating plans. To be conducive to release of creative energy, the association of teachers in the school system and in the community must break through the barriers which divide human beings and must break down the blocks which are so characteristic of typical line-staff organization.

Only when a teacher shares in all relationships of his environment does that teacher secure the stability so essential to becoming a truly great teacher whose energies are nascent and under pressure to create. The teacher who is alive and creative can see humor in the stupidities of educational practice and can look upon such stupidities, not as condemnation of the public school system, but as warnings which challenge creative ways of translating stupid behavior into intelligent practice. If a teacher is alive and creative, the future in education is not ominous or dull; on the contrary, it is an opportunity, a chance, a promise, a thrilling challenge.

Everything depends upon the way in which teachers' potential energies are given an opportunity to overflow into the situation. The seemingly pleasant smile and the conventional handshake upon greeting a new teacher in the schools may be artifices. But a genuinely gracious act of welcome which is not a blind, but which is a natural cooperative manifestation of friendliness, is artistic. If cordiality is designed primarily to gain favor, the act is artificial and not artistic. Whenever a program for dealing with personnel problems of teachers is designed as a means for achieving some purpose other than the solution of teacher problems because intrinsically they deserve solution, the whole program smacks of trickery. But when the teachers themselves are engaged in the develop-



ment of their own plans of action for dealing with their own personnel problems, the natural and the cultivated procedures are blended into one, and the acts of solving personnel problems become works of art.

The trouble with many programs for solving personnel problems is that they have been designed by administrators for the purpose of making administration easier, for reducing difficulties met by them, for enhancing the reputation of administration in the community, for achieving public approval, and for improvement of personal reputation. Such procedures may be better than none, but they are basically counterfeit, and no matter how skilled, they are still counterfeit. A skillfully planned counterfeit program for dealing with personnel problems of teachers may go through the form, but it does not have the substance of an artistic plan. Only when the plans for solving personnel problems result in an integration of teacher energies does the plan become a real work of art.

Creative workers are indispensable in our schools, and for this reason the following criteria for establishing a program for dealing with personnel problems of the staff should be observed.

1. The plans should release teachers maximally from scheduled, routinized, ritualized, mechanized situations, for these are the enemies of creative work.
2. Plans should provide teachers an opportunity for the expression of their deep-seated feelings, complexes, and life urges, for creative expression involves these feelings.
3. Plans should, encourage teachers to participate in hobby activities and to develop them.
4. Plans should, in so far as possible in relation to the local situation, release teachers from conventional, conformist, inhibitive regulations, for creative expression, to exist at all, must be free.
5. Plans should enable and encourage teachers to engage in activities which will foster relaxation, pleasure, enjoyment, and satisfaction.
6. Plans should remove the obstacles to teacher growth and development.
7. Plans should ensure that the staff has a definite part in locating problems needing solution.
8. Plans should ensure that the staff participates in devising plans of action.
9. Plans should ensure that the staff shares in evaluation of plans of action.
10. Plans should ensure that the staff shares in revision of plans of action.

### SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of practices in your school which violate the principle that the school environment should be conducive to the health of teachers.
2. Make a list of administrative procedures in your school, and indicate whether or not these procedures are conducive to mutuality.
3. Make a list of practices in your school which stem largely from habit, tradition, or prejudice.



4. What is the difference between educational leadership which is democratic and educational leadership which is not democratic? List the characteristics of each.

5. What are some of the most promising techniques used in your school to promote sharing, on the part of the staff, in the development of school policies with respect to employment of new teachers?

6. Make a list of eight or ten personnel policies which are followed in your school, and evaluate each one in terms of the four basic values assumed in this chapter.

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## CHAPTER 3 *The Selection of New Teachers*

When a board of education is given the authority by the people of a community to erect a new school building, one of the first acts of the board is to select an architect whose duty it is to present plans and specifications to the board for its examination; the second is to revise such plans and specifications according to the wishes of the board. This process is expected to continue until such a time as there is agreement. Once the plans and specifications are agreed upon, contracts are let and work is begun.

It is important to note that in this procedure the specifications are established by a professional staff prior to the selection of a builder to do the work.

Similarly, when equipment is purchased for the building, specifications are first established so that the board will have reason to believe that it is getting what is needed and what is most desirable.

If specifications by professional people are essential to intelligent building, and if specifications by professional people are essential to intelligent selection of materials, how much more important it is that specifications be devised by professional educators for personnel who are to serve the interests and welfare of children and a community.

In spite of this apparently obvious conclusion, most school systems do not prepare specifications for professional services in any complete fashion and may ignore professional help in selection. It is much more likely that something like the following procedure will take place:

Mr. Smith resigns his position as teacher of mathematics late in the spring. Mr. Jones, the superintendent of schools, is faced with the responsibility of replacement. He must find a replacement to recommend to the board, and the board will probably employ the teacher.

Mr. Jones writes letters to his alma mater, to the state university placement office, to the teachers' college close at hand, and perhaps to a few other institutions. He may phone instead of write. But in some way he lets the various placement offices know that he has a vacancy in the field of mathematics in the high school. He prefers a man, but he will consider a woman. He prefers



an experienced teacher, but he will consider one without experience. He assumes that only appropriately certified teachers will be suggested.

The above description of practice is typical. Some administrators will be much more demanding in their requirements, but others will merely call the placement office over the phone and proceed something like this: "Bill, you know our system pretty well. We have a vacancy in our mathematics department. Send me the papers of a couple of good candidates—don't send candidates down; I'll send for them myself."

There is no reasonable excuse for such loosely planned procedure in selection of new teachers. It is unfair to those who are preparing to teach, it is dangerous for the children who are to be taught, and it is unprofessional in its effects upon the staff of the school system. Out of procedures of this kind grow the evils of political favoritism, employment through personal friendship, employment of persons who will "play ball" with school authorities. Out of these practices grow the notion that *who* a prospective teacher knows is more important than *what* he knows or whether he knows how to teach children. Inquiry among teachers in service in classes in school administration and supervision conducted by the writer reveal that most teachers in schools have never heard of carefully preparing specifications for professional employees. Small wonder that many teachers speculate whether teaching is a profession or just another branch of the open labor market.

As an experiment, the writer requested 173 teachers to assume that they had been offered employment by another school system at salaries so attractive that they could not refuse to accept. Then they were asked to assume that their present employing boards and their respective superintendents had requested them to write the specifications for their successors. The results were challenging indeed because these teachers knew the job to be done, they knew their own shortcomings, they knew that their successors should possess certain qualifications which could be accurately described.

A summary of the general nature of the specifications prepared by these teachers follows.

1. Specifications with respect to subject-matter preparation.
2. Specifications with respect to professional preparation.
3. Specifications with respect to health, age, sex, and general physical attributes.
4. Specifications with respect to nonteaching work experience.
5. Specifications with respect to teaching experience.
6. Specifications with respect to scholastic and extrascholastic school activities.
7. Specifications with respect to basic attitudes toward children.
8. Specifications with respect to character and personality traits.



9. Specifications with respect to the kinds of persons who would support the candidacy of the applicant.
10. Specifications with respect to race, color, and creed.
11. Specifications with respect to personal habits.
12. Specifications with respect to furnishing evidence of a sincere interest in children.
13. Specifications with respect to special abilities needed (such as ability to play a piano).
14. Specifications with respect to hobbies and interests.
15. Specifications with respect to social life and experience.
16. Specifications with respect to travel.
17. Specifications with respect to professional philosophy.
18. Specifications with respect to business ability, financial record, honesty, etc.
19. Specifications with respect to specialized preparation needed.
20. Specifications with respect to personal grooming.

Most of the teachers agreed that if their specifications had been applied to them at the outset, there was some doubt that they would have been employed, but they also agreed that if they had known that the school system had established such specifications, they would have been much more thoughtful and serious about their own professional preparation.

The writer conferred later with a group of elementary school teachers, the principal, and the superintendent of a school system for the purpose of writing specifications for a teacher who was to be assigned to teach in the third grade. The reader will be interested in the final draft of these specifications.

Specifications for a third-grade teacher  
\_\_\_\_\_ School

City of \_\_\_\_\_

1. The teacher selected should be a graduate of a teachers college approved by the American Association of Teachers Colleges, and should have at least a bachelor's degree.
2. The teacher selected should be one whose four years of college work were directed primarily toward teaching in grades 1, 2, and 3.
3. The teacher should have had at least two courses in the area of teaching reading.
4. The teacher should have had college courses in each of the following areas: public school music, first aid, physical education, arts and crafts, science, geography, arithmetic and mathematics, English grammar, literature, history, and community problems.
5. The teacher should have had college work in educational psychology, philosophy of American education, guidance, curriculum development, evaluation, mental hygiene, and methods of teaching.
6. The teacher should be healthy, physically vigorous, and attractive in appearance.



7. The teacher should be over twenty-one years of age but under thirty years of age.
8. The teacher selected should have had successful teaching experience in a public school in grades 1, 2, or 3 or should have had not less than one-half year of cadet teaching under a competent critic teacher, teaching children in grades 1, 2, or 3.
9. No restrictions should be placed on the teacher with respect to color, sex, religion, or race.
10. The teacher selected should be one whose loyalty to the United States is unquestioned.
11. The teacher should have a scholastic record in high school and college which indicates that he ranked in the upper third of his group in so far as general scholastic achievement is concerned.
12. The teacher selected should be able to demonstrate upon examination that he has formulated a philosophy of education in terms of
  - a. Purposes of public education.
  - b. The unique function of public education in American democracy.
  - c. The role of the teacher in the process of education.
13. The teacher should be able to demonstrate on examination that he has a working knowledge of the learning process.
14. The teacher should be recommended by persons who are recognized as competent educators in the field of public education and who are especially able to judge teaching on the primary level.
15. The teacher selected should be one who has participated actively in extra-curricular activities in high school and college or at least in college.
16. The teacher selected should be one whose character is vouched for by persons who know him well and whose reputation for integrity can be checked by the superintendent and the staff.
17. The teacher selected should have the ability to play the piano to the extent that he could play music suitable to third-grade children's voices.
18. The teacher selected should have a record of more than passive interest in children's hobbies, games, sports, recreational activities.
19. The teacher selected should have some hobby of his own which is pursued with more than passive interest.
20. The teacher selected should have had some nonteaching work experience or camp experience.
21. The teacher should be able to write an interesting, informative, and correctly constructed letter.
22. The teacher should have a working understanding of
  - a. The state education association.
  - b. Teachers' unions.
  - c. The NEA.
  - d. School law in the state.
  - e. School lunch programs.
  - f. The PTA (parent-teacher associations).
23. The teacher selected should be able to meet people easily.
24. The teacher selected should have a fairly well-defined code of ethics which could be stated upon request.



25. The teacher selected should give assurance that he expects to teach for at least three years.
26. Marital status should not be a factor, but if the teacher selected is a married woman, she should not have children less than six years of age.
27. Preference will be given to a teacher who, in addition to meeting the above qualifications, has a Master of Arts degree from an approved graduate school with a major in elementary school education.

These specifications may or may not be appropriate to other situations, but the teachers and administrator involved in this particular situation felt that all the specifications should be met.

As a result, such a teacher was sought. Specifications were sent to placement offices. The response was surprising. The number of candidates was not as great as before, but the quality of candidates was so much better that all concerned with employment noticed it immediately. Yes, the salary necessary to employ this type of teacher was greater, but the children deserve the best, not just what happens to come along!

There is no good reason why administrative officials in the schools should not utilize the ability, intelligence, and experience of teachers in preparing specifications for teachers to fill vacancies. In a large city system the first-grade teachers might select a committee to prepare specifications for first-grade teachers. These could be used by principals, supervisors, and superintendents in making final specifications. Or better still, all agencies involved might devise specifications which could be accepted by all. High school teachers could be of great help to principals in helping to write specifications of teachers to fill vacancies.

A few principles for writing specifications for teachers should be mentioned here.

1. The specifications should be prepared by teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents as a cooperative venture.
2. The specifications should go beyond the mere requirement that the teacher be appropriately certified.
3. The specifications should be concerned with
  - a. Subject-matter preparation.
  - b. Professional preparation.
  - c. Experience.
  - d. Personal qualifications.
  - e. Scholastic record.
  - f. Extracurricular record.
  - g. Special abilities required.
  - h. Other items selected by the group writing the specifications.
4. The specifications should be written and duplicated.
5. The specifications should indicate the nature of the position for which the teacher is being sought (first grade, primary, upper grades, departmental, etc.).



6. Specifications should be concerned with age, sex, personal characteristics, health, and similar aspects of the problem.
7. Specifications should be concerned with desired experience.
8. Specifications should indicate type of professional support desired (recommendations, etc.).
9. Specifications should be concerned with social characteristics desired.
10. Specifications should be concerned with any special requirements of the position.

Once the specifications have been prepared, a copy should be sent with letters to appropriate placement offices. The placement officers should be requested to examine the specifications carefully and nominate only those persons who, in their judgment, meet them.

Immediately upon receipt of the papers from the placement office, the administrative officer of the school assigned to initiate action on teacher employment (superintendent, principal, committee chairman, etc.) should write letters to the persons named by the placement office, sending the prospective candidates copies of the specifications developed by the professional staff. In addition, a questionnaire should be sent to the teacher being considered, which has been specifically designed to meet the stipulations of the specifications. Blanket type of application forms should be avoided. For example, for the third-grade teacher described previously in this chapter, a questionnaire such as the following would be appropriate.

QUESTIONNAIRE TO PERSON RECOMMENDED TO US AS CANDIDATE  
FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER, TO BE ASSIGNED TO  
THIRD GRADE

City \_\_\_\_\_ State \_\_\_\_\_  
Date \_\_\_\_\_

**DIRECTIONS:**

1. Please fill out this form if you desire to be considered for the above position.
2. After you have completed the questionnaire, return it in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope to John Doe, superintendent of schools, city, state.
3. Read the specifications prepared by our staff item by item as you fill out the form, and answer the questions in the light of these items.
4. Return not later than \_\_\_\_\_

**PART A:**

1. Your full name \_\_\_\_\_
2. Present address \_\_\_\_\_
3. Telephone number during school hours \_\_\_\_\_
4. Telephone number after school hours \_\_\_\_\_
5. Most convenient time for us to phone you if we decide to do so:  
Days \_\_\_\_\_ Hours \_\_\_\_\_

6. If we should decide to send a telegram, where should we send it?

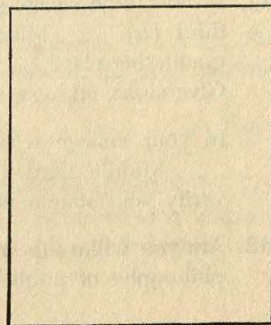
7. Special instructions regarding getting in touch with you.

PART B:

1. Do you have a bachelor's degree? \_\_\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No
2. If your answer is yes, state the name of the institution granting the degree and the year the degree was granted.
3. Were your four years of college work directed, in the main, for preparation to teach in grades 1, 2, or 3 of the public schools? \_\_\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No  
Please list specific courses taken by you in this specialized preparation.
4. How many courses in the teaching of reading have you had? \_\_\_\_\_  
List the courses and your instructors.
5. Check whether you have had college course work in the following:
 

a. Public school music.	_____ Yes	_____ No
b. First aid.	_____ Yes	_____ No
c. Physical education.	_____ Yes	_____ No
d. Arts and crafts.	_____ Yes	_____ No
e. Science.	_____ Yes	_____ No
f. Geography.	_____ Yes	_____ No
g. Arithmetic and mathematics.	_____ Yes	_____ No
h. English grammar	_____ Yes	_____ No
i. Literature.	_____ Yes	_____ No
j. History.	_____ Yes	_____ No
k. Community problems.	_____ Yes	_____ No
6. Check whether you have had college course work in the following:
 

a. Educational psychology.	_____ Yes	_____ No
b. Philosophy of education.	_____ Yes	_____ No
c. Guidance.	_____ Yes	_____ No
d. Curriculum development.	_____ Yes	_____ No
e. Evaluation of learning.	_____ Yes	_____ No
f. Mental hygiene.	_____ Yes	_____ No
g. Methods of teaching.	_____ Yes	_____ No
7. Are you over twenty-one years of age? \_\_\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No  
Are you under thirty years of age? \_\_\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No
8. Attach a picture of yourself here:





Have you any chronic illnesses? \_\_\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No

If your answer is "yes," state the nature of the illness.

Have you had a complete medical examination by an M.D. within the past year? \_\_\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No

If you have had such an examination, list the name and address of the physician below:

Name of physician \_\_\_\_\_

Address \_\_\_\_\_

If your answer is "no" and you sincerely desire further consideration by us, please go to your physician for a complete physical examination and request him to send us a statement to the effect that he has examined you, giving date and stating results of examination. We may write your physician.

List names of persons who are most able to pass judgment upon your vigor and general appearance. Give addresses.

9. Have you actually taught *under contract* in a public school? \_\_\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No

If "yes," state the place and give name of your principal

If your answer above is "yes," in what grade did you teach? \_\_\_\_\_ 1st \_\_\_\_\_ 2d \_\_\_\_\_ 3d \_\_\_\_\_ other; state what area \_\_\_\_\_

If your answer is "no," have you had one-half year of practice teaching (cadet teaching) under a competent critic teacher? \_\_\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No.

If your answer is "yes" name the place and the teacher \_\_\_\_\_

If you have had no actual contractual teaching experience and have had less than one-half year of practice teaching, but have had some practice, tell how much, where, and under whose direction, below:

10. Read the following statement, and if after reading it you are willing to do so, sign on the line provided:

I am a citizen of the United States. I believe in the fundamentals of government as expressed in the Constitution of the United States. I hereby reaffirm my loyalty to the United States of America and pledge that in all I do as a teacher, I will support the United States of America as my country.

Your name \_\_\_\_\_

11. In your high school scholastic work were you among the (a) \_\_\_\_\_ Lower third (b) \_\_\_\_\_ Middle third (c) \_\_\_\_\_ Upper third? How many in your graduating class? \_\_\_\_\_ To whom could we write to verify your statement? Give name, address, school, etc.

In your college work were you among the (a) \_\_\_\_\_ Lower third (b) \_\_\_\_\_ Middle third (c) \_\_\_\_\_ Upper third? To whom could we write to verify your statement?

12. Are you willing to stand a brief oral examination by us to determine your philosophy of public education? \_\_\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No

13. Are you willing to stand a brief oral examination by us to determine whether you have a working knowledge of the learning process? \_\_\_\_\_Yes \_\_\_\_\_No
14. List below the names and addresses of two or three educators (teachers, principals, critic teachers, etc.) who have observed you teach and who are competent to judge your effectiveness as a teacher on the *primary* level. (We will write to the persons you name.)
15. List the chief extracurricular activities in which you took an active part in high school.  
  
List the chief extracurricular activities in which you took an active part in college.
16. List the names of three or four persons who can be contacted by us for information concerning your character and reputation. Give addresses and occupations.
17. Do you play the piano well enough to play simple music for third-grade children? \_\_\_\_\_Yes \_\_\_\_\_No
18. List hobbies of your own which would be of interest to children of the third grade: (a)\_\_\_\_\_ (b)\_\_\_\_\_ (c)\_\_\_\_\_
19. Do you have a *particular* hobby which you have pursued with more than passive interest? \_\_\_\_\_Yes \_\_\_\_\_No  
What is it?
20. Have you had any nonteaching work experience within the past ten or twelve years? \_\_\_\_\_Yes \_\_\_\_\_No  
List below any such work experience (include such items as clerking in stores, baby sitting, etc.—in fact any kind of work experience which might reveal to us something about you).
21. Please write us a brief letter in your own handwriting in which you discuss the following topic: Why I Like to Teach Children. Send your letter with your application form.
22. Are you willing to be questioned, in an interview, about the state teachers' association, teachers' unions, the NEA, school law in this state, school lunch programs, and PTA's? \_\_\_\_\_Yes \_\_\_\_\_No
23. We are interested in your commitments with respect to a code of ethics for teachers. Are you willing to discuss this in an interview? \_\_\_\_\_Yes \_\_\_\_\_No
24. Are you married? \_\_\_\_\_Yes \_\_\_\_\_No. If your answer is "yes," answer the following:  
Do you have children? \_\_\_\_\_Yes \_\_\_\_\_No  
What ages?
25. Have you done graduate work at an approved graduate school? \_\_\_\_\_Yes \_\_\_\_\_No. If your answer is "yes," describe your work in terms of courses you have taken, teachers of the courses, and any advanced degrees you have earned.



26. If you are invited for an interview, it is very probable that you will meet and talk with the principal, several teachers, and the superintendent. In the interview we would be interested in your ability to meet people, your poise, your human qualities, your friendliness, and your general appearance. Are you willing to meet with us for such an interview?

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No

(Here state policy with respect to payment of travel expenses.)

After the questionnaires from prospective candidates have been received by the administrative authorities, they should be carefully examined by principals, the superintendent, and by a committee of teachers as well. Such a teacher committee should be one which has been selected by the teaching staff, not by the administrative agents.

At the same time, the papers received from the placement offices should be examined by the group which examined the returned questionnaires, and as a result of examination of these two basic documents from all prospective candidates, the committee, now including principal and superintendent, should select by a formal vote a small number—two, three, or four—to meet with the committee for personal interviews. Expenses of the candidate should be born, at least in part, by the board of education.

One of the most satisfying practices is to pay travel expenses for all persons invited for an interview. If funds are not available for this, expenses for unsuccessful candidates should be paid in full or in part. In one school known by the author, candidates were informed that if a candidate was not offered the job after the interview, the board would pay all expenses, that if the candidate were offered the job and accepted, the board would pay half the expenses, but if the candidate were offered the job and refused to accept, the board would pay no expenses.

It is highly important that letters be sent immediately after such selection to all placement offices concerned and to all persons who submitted questionnaires that a specific number have been invited to come for an interview. Such a letter should also make clear that the committee does not care to interview any prospective candidate unless a letter from the superintendent is received by the teacher inviting him to meet the committee.

It is highly important that the superintendent, principals, and committee of teachers spend an appropriate amount of time planning the interview. Every effort should be made to provide for the following:

1. An opportunity to see the building.
2. An opportunity to see the classroom where teaching would be done.
3. An opportunity to see the high spots of the community.
4. An opportunity to meet many of the teachers in the building.
5. An opportunity to meet the head janitor.



6. An opportunity to meet one or more persons who are members of the board of education (except in larger cities).
7. An opportunity to meet the president of the PTA.
8. An opportunity to meet the president of the local teachers' association.
9. An opportunity to see the record system used in the principal's office, including cumulative records.
10. An opportunity to examine general rules and regulations which govern teachers.
11. An opportunity to secure information concerning salary, living costs, recreational facilities, housing, restaurants, and other items of crucial concern to teachers.
12. An opportunity for the invited teacher to ask questions about any aspect of school organization, point of view, finance, policies, etc.
13. An opportunity to meet children.

It is extremely important, also, that each person invited for an interview be treated as an honored guest by the school administrators, teachers, and children.

After each of the persons has visited with the school officials, teachers, and others, the principal or superintendent should secure from the entire committee and from others a simple evaluation of those interviewed. Obviously, any one of those invited for an interview was qualified for the position. The important question to be answered by the interview is: Which of these qualified persons would best meet the needs and which would be most likely to succeed in this particular school program? The judgments of many on this question are far better than the judgments of one.

Following the collection of reactions of the committee and others, the principal, superintendent, and committee should select *one* as the outstanding candidate and should decide by a formal vote to recommend this teacher to the board of education for employment. In some schools it may be wiser to nominate two and let the board of education make the final choice. In the writer's opinion, in smaller school systems, there is much merit in the latter procedure because the board in a smaller community is closer to the people and to the staff, and their judgments are usually wise. Furthermore, such procedure erases the feeling that boards of education, who have the ability to select a superintendent, are not considered capable of passing judgment concerning the employment of teachers.

As soon as the legally authorized agency, that is, the board or in some cities the superintendent, has decided upon the selection of a teacher, that teacher should be immediately notified by wire or special-delivery registered mail. *Notification by phone could accompany the more permanent type but should never be used as a substitute.*

The telegram or letter might be as follows:



This is to notify you that upon recommendation of the professional staff, you are herewith offered the teaching position in the \_\_\_\_\_ schools for which you were an applicant. The board has authorized a salary of \$\_\_\_\_\_ for the first year of employment. Contracts will be mailed to you within the next few days. We will appreciate your immediate acceptance, but you are granted \_\_\_\_\_ days from receipt of contract to make your decision. We hope you will accept by return wire or letter.

Not only should the successful candidate be notified as indicated, but letters should go out to all those interviewed, and such letters should be about like the following:

The professional staff had great difficulty in making a decision with respect to its recommendation for the position in our schools for which you were considered. We really wished we could offer all of you a teaching position here. The committee recommended that \_\_\_\_\_ be employed, and we have officially notified h\_\_\_\_\_. As yet we have not received an acceptance. If we receive an acceptance, the vacancy will no longer exist, but if our offer is not accepted, we will reexamine the candidates we interviewed and make a second recommendation.

[Insert here plans for paying expenses of candidate.]

If we may have your permission to do so, we would like very much to retain your questionnaire in our files for future reference should another vacancy occur in the same teaching area, either soon, or within the next year or two. Will you let us know your desires in this?

If you give your permission for us to keep your questionnaire, we would like to have you keep us informed as to your whereabouts if any change occurs so that we would always know where we could locate you.

We were impressed with your qualifications and with you personally, and we feel that you are a credit to the teaching profession. Please keep us informed about yourself as you continue teaching.

Professionally yours,

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Similarly, the placement offices should be informed of action taken, and after a teacher has been employed and has accepted, all papers from placement offices should be forthwith returned together with the name of the teacher employed and the salary.

### *A Case in Point*

To illustrate the procedure the writer believes that the story of the employment of a young, inexperienced, college graduate in a small Middle Western city should be told. The young man's name is withheld here because even though he is still a very young man he is now the treasurer of one of the nation's well-known large companies, and the



story might be a bit embarrassing to him. We shall call him James Hoyt.

A committee of teachers, five in number, the principal of the high school, the superintendent of schools, the president of the board of education, and a senior who had studied mathematics for four years and who had been selected by the student council, constituted a committee to devise specifications for an additional teacher in the field of mathematics. For three weeks this committee worked on preparation of them.

The superintendent then sent copies of specifications to some thirty colleges and universities, stating that they had been prepared by the above committee. The placement offices were requested to nominate any person who qualified and to send complete papers for such nominees.

The procedure described in this chapter was followed, in the main. One important deviation occurred. Two finalists were invited to speak briefly to class groups in the school, not only to those in mathematics classes but to others as well. All talks of this nature had been arranged by the committee.

After both candidates had been interviewed and had met with student groups, students in the classes were given an opportunity to vote on a prepared ballot upon the question: "Which of the two candidates for teacher in our school do you prefer?—James Hoyt—Arland Jones."

The committee, the majority of the teachers, and a majority of the high school pupils who had voted selected Mr. Hoyt. He was employed. In spite of the fact that Mr. Hoyt was only twenty-one years of age and had never taught before, except as a practice teacher, he was from the beginning an outstanding teacher. For three years this young man taught in the high school, and teachers, pupils, parents, administrators, board members, and citizens in general ranked him as one of the most outstanding teachers who had ever been in the schools.

Today this gentleman holds a most responsible position in industry and is scarcely out of his thirties. Apparently the procedure resulted in locating an outstanding man.

In talking with school administrators about the procedure described, the author has heard many objections. These objections all seem to fall within one or more of the following categories:

1. It takes too much time and work.
2. Teachers are not willing to participate.
3. Boards of education hire superintendents to select teachers.
4. Such a procedure results in paying higher salaries.
5. When a school hires good teachers, such teachers leave for better positions.
6. The politicians do not like it because it prevents them from using their influence.



7. Boards of education like to reward their friends, and such a procedure would make it difficult.
8. Home-town teachers are preferred and would not be given preference by this method.
9. Superintendents could not help each other in desirable teacher exchanges.
10. Placement offices will not cooperate.

These objections should be met without side-stepping any issue. Only through frank discussion of them can progress be made.

The first objection, namely, that the procedure suggested takes too much time and work, is ridiculous. After all, the employment of teachers is the most important and most significant responsibility of boards of education and administrators. Teachers outweigh materials of instruction, buildings, school bonds, furniture, transportation of pupils, and all other aspects of the school program. Usually about 70 per cent of the money spent by school districts is for teachers. No superintendent, if he is a real educational leader and statesman, can ethically place any single duty as more important than that of selection of competent, effective teachers of character and judgment to teach the children.

On the second objection, the facts do not bear out the assertion. Teachers want to share in the selection of colleagues. Of course there are those who do not desire to so participate, but the majority will welcome the opportunity. Actually, the second objection is probably a defense mechanism for those administrators who prefer to maintain the *status quo*. They may even be afraid that teachers might select persons who have potentialities of becoming administrators.

The third objection, like the second, is an escape mechanism. Boards of education will, in the main, be much more receptive to a recommendation preceded by the word "we." Those superintendents who have gone before boards of education with such statements as "We, the professional staff of our schools, recommend the employment of John Doe to teach in our schools" have only words of praise for the results. Boards of education respect the word "we" far more than they do the word "I." Especially is this true when the latter word is included in the former. This writer, with a background of nearly two decades of experience as a school superintendent, never realized real professional status as a superintendent until his first experience with the "we" approach. He found that boards of education really felt that the superintendent was performing as a leader when he came to them with recommendations preceded by "we."

On number 4, what is wrong with paying higher salaries for better teachers? One of the reasons why teachers suffer from poor salaries is that the public too often has its collective fingers crossed regarding the quality of service being rendered by teachers. Teachers deserve



better pay—but the poor ones cannot demand it. Only through improvement of the quality of our professional services can we ever expect the realistic public to “shell out” to pay salaries. It is a maxim that what the people want badly enough, they will pay for. The sooner we who are engaged in education realize this, the better off we will be. Surely it will raise teachers’ salaries if we improve our services. More power to the procedure to achieve such a goal. If a community finds that for the salaries offered only the “castoffs” can be employed, sooner or later the people themselves will rise and demand a change, and when the people demand it, we get it—as long as we maintain our democratic procedures, of course.

There is no special virtue in keeping teachers in the same position for their entire professional career. There is no reason why children would be the worse off if such teachers served for only two or three years in a community—if such teachers were replaced by equally fine teachers. A superintendent, board, and community should welcome the kind of reputation for its schools that makes service in them a mark of professional competence. The main reason for school administrators fearing turnover (not meaning, of course, only one year of service) is that they dislike the process of hunting for another teacher. Laziness should not merit our consideration to any extent except to deprecate its existence. Of course, if the schools are to worship at the shrine of “keep turnover to a minimum,” one sure way of doing it would be to employ teachers who could not get positions elsewhere.

It must be admitted that politically inclined school administrators or board members will not like the procedure outlined here. But the schools should never be operated for the benefit of such people; rather the schools are operated *for* the children *by* the people acting through their official agents. One of the merits of the proposals made herein is that they increase the difficulty of political interests bringing pressure upon the schools. Actually, of course, school superintendents and principals are frequently in office by virtue of such influence, and when they are, they are afraid to introduce a contrary device.

Rewarding sons and daughters of friends by employing them in the schools is not uncommon, particularly in the larger cities, but the practice also exists in some smaller communities. In the main, administrators dislike the practice, but many of them find themselves powerless to prevent it because of the fact that they stand alone against it. By arranging for staff participation as outlined herein, the superintendent is armed with as large a “we” as he may elect, and so armed, his chances for winning a joust with special privilege are greatly increased. Boards are much less likely to attempt to “push” a candidate if they realize that the professional staff, not the superintendent alone, is opposing the procedure.



Too often schools are inclined to employ "home-town" teachers in preference to others who might be better qualified. There is no good reason why home-town people should not be employed in the schools if such persons are the best that can be secured. Very few educators would complain about home talent in the schools if such talent had run the gamut of meeting the same specifications as outsiders and if their qualifications were equally good or better. It is not the employment of home talent which is questionable; rather it is hiring local people willy-nilly without regard to the best interests of the children. The procedure outlined here gives home-town teachers a better chance than outsiders, because they become aware of the requirements early and because more people known to the school authorities can pass judgment upon them. The procedures proposed here would be a blow, indeed, to those boards and school administrators whose chief goal it was to give local people jobs so that they could hold their own.

There is no reason why, under the proposals presented here, superintendents could not arrange for teacher exchanges. But such exchanges would be forced to be on a professional level, not on the level of friendship or caprice.

The assertion that placement offices will not cooperate is a bit naïve. If such an office failed to do so, the school authorities would only need to notify the agency that until further notice they would seek no candidates through them, and procedures would change for the better overnight. Some placement offices are negligent, of that there can be no doubt, but if they cannot place teachers because of their negligence, they will quickly learn or be required to learn to change their methods. The fault too often lies in ourselves as school administrators, rather than in our stars, that we are underlings.

A recent study<sup>1</sup> of employment practices in 1,615 school systems in cities above 2,500 in population may be helpful to administrators and teachers in selecting new staff members. A brief summary follows:

1. School authorities interview candidates, *use formal application blanks*, and collect information and opinions from persons named as references.
2. Four years of collegiate study, including suitable professional courses in education, is the *minimum* acceptable professional preparation in 74 per cent of the elementary schools, 95 per cent of the junior high schools, and 99 per cent of the senior high schools.
3. Five years of collegiate study, including suitable professional courses in education, is considered as desirable in 4 per cent of the junior high schools and in 10 per cent of the senior high schools.
4. Selecting authorities require proof of physical fitness for candidates in only 28 per cent of the cities.

<sup>1</sup> *Teacher Personnel Practices 1950-51, Appointment and Termination of Service*, NEA Research Bulletin 30, No. 1, February, 1952.



5. In the selection of teachers, married and single women are eligible equally in 41 per cent of the cities, while in 51 per cent of the cities there are still some restrictions against married women and in 8 per cent married women are not employed.
6. Local residence is not a factor in the selection of teachers in 60 per cent of the school systems; preference is given to local residents in 30 per cent of the cities and to out-of-town residents in 10 per cent of the cities.
7. Experience is not a requirement in most schools although 9 per cent require teaching experience for new elementary school teachers, 12 per cent for junior high school teachers, and 14 per cent for senior high school teachers.
8. School authorities frequently establish lists of candidates eligible for positions if openings occur. Thirty per cent of the schools follow this practice.
9. In 84 per cent of the schools the superintendent of schools nominates teachers for appointment.
10. In 56 per cent of the cities teachers, including those on permanent tenure, sign written contracts although in 7 per cent of the cases no teacher signs a contract.
11. Tenure after a probationary period is reported as a practice in 56 per cent of the schools studied.

*It should be pointed out that the preceding report of the Research Division is a report of current practice not a statement of what should be done.* Teachers should remember this when they work together to establish policies for the employment of new teachers. There is every reason to believe that teachers should share in determining the policies for employment of new teachers, but they should avoid the error of accepting current practice as identical with what should be done, because such a policy is socially blind. Teachers and administrators should work together for the purpose of establishing their own policies concerning the selection of new teachers.

## SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Working with one or two of your colleagues in your school, draw up a brief set of specifications for elementary school teachers which would be common to all teachers in this field.
2. Assume that you were offered a new teaching position in another school system at a salary so attractive that you could not refuse and that you could have the job if you could be released from your present position at the end of the semester. Assume, also, that when you put the matter up to your employer, he said, "You may be released provided that you will prepare a thorough set of specifications for your successor." Write the specifications for your successor.
3. Should a superintendent request teachers of a given area to prepare specifications for new teachers in the area if there is no vacancy? Why?
4. What evils could develop from teacher participation in writing specifications for new teachers?



5. Should possession of a master's degree be considered as proof of competency? A doctor's degree? Give reasons for your answer.
6. What is the practice in your school for the selection of new teachers?
7. Should teachers seek employment in their home towns? Why?

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## CHAPTER 4 *Orientation of New Teachers*

Most superintendents of schools and school principals everywhere now believe that the schools should have a definite program for orientation of new teachers. However, in many school systems the belief is about as far as administrators have progressed. There is a cavernous gap between lip service to belief in the value of an orientation program and actually operating such a program.

In 1951 one of the writer's graduate classes voted to request the instructor to invite a beginning teacher to meet with the class to answer questions about the orientation program. The instructor sought such a teacher from a school system where he assumed, from public utterances of the superintendent, that there was a fine program for orientation of new teachers. To the utter amazement of the class and of the instructor (who fortunately had not named the school system and who had assigned an assumed name to the teacher being interviewed), the following story was related by the young lady.<sup>1</sup>

I was notified by telephone early in June that the board of education had approved my appointment in their school system. A few days later contracts arrived and were signed and returned by me. I sent a letter along telling the superintendent that during the summer I could be reached at the state university and that from August 7 until moving to my new job, I would be at home.

I had never taught before, except as a cadet teacher, but I had learned from my teachers that it would be wise to go to my new location at least a week before school opened to locate a room, get the "lay of the land," and become oriented to the school plant and equipment.

On August 1, no word had come to me regarding the opening date of school, so I wrote a letter inquiring. I was told to report to my school building, which was named, at nine o'clock the first Wednesday after Labor Day.

I had applied for a position as teacher of science in the junior high school, so during the summer much of my time was spent gathering materials and

<sup>1</sup> Credit is due Eleanor Brown for taking notes in shorthand.



laying plans for the opening weeks of teaching children of the seventh and eighth grade some science.

On September 1, I had received no further information from my superintendent or principal, so I borrowed our family car and drove to my new educational workshop. To my utter disappointment the superintendent was out of town and the secretary advised me to try to locate the principal. He was gone, too. In fact, the building in which I was to teach was locked so that I couldn't even talk with a janitor. So I drove home, wrote a letter, and waited.

A week later the mail brought me word that the superintendent was still out of town. By this time my disposition became a bit eroded, so I went to the city of my employment, located a room, and moved in with a determination to get acquainted with the community and school prior to my starting work.

The next day I located the principal at his home and was told that my assignment had been changed, that instead of teaching science in the junior high school, I would be given three classes in home economics and two session rooms. This was great! I objected, but the principal assured me that my background in science was assurance of success. He also said that because of the fact that home economics was new to the school, everything would be relatively easy.

I was also told that, because of renovation activities, the building wouldn't be open until the day before school started, so I should take it easy. This, too, was discouraging, so I left my newly rented room and went home, quite disgusted and emotionally upset.

Well, school started and I was there on the spot. No faculty meeting was held to give me any clues—just mimeographed bulletins. I was forced to introduce myself to a few teachers, who in turn took me to others.

After much inquiry I found out about the details of scheduling, lunch periods, and reports, but it took me five weeks to discover enough about the school to begin to feel that I was a part of it.

This story may seem fantastic to the reader. Certainly it seemed so to those who listened to it, but a checkup with other beginners in the same school system verified it, and several teachers in the class said that their own experiences were similar. Apparently some school administrators talk like Jefferson but act like Hamilton.

Madeline Mitchell,<sup>2</sup> in 1952, studied orientation programs of schools in the United States and found that very promising orientation programs had been developed in the following cities:

Sacramento, Calif.

Stockton, Calif.

Reef-Sunset, Calif.

Des Moines, Iowa

New Brunswick, N.J.

White Plains, N.Y.

Elizabeth, N.J.

Wilmington, Del.

Stillwater, Okla.

Grosse Point, Mich.

<sup>2</sup> Madeline Mitchell, *Teacher Orientation*, Master's paper, School of Education, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn., 1952.



Portland, Ore.  
Hutchinson, Kan.  
Evanston, Ill.  
Corpus Christi, Tex.

Lakewood, Ohio  
Tucson, Ariz.  
Newton, Mass.

In Stockton, Calif., many people participated in planning and executing the orientation program. The participants included the superintendent of schools; supervisors of attendance, art, music, and health; directors of research and vocational education; coordinators of libraries and curricula; teachers; the secretary of the Chamber of Commerce; principals; and parents.

At Stockton the orientation program included lectures, discussions, workshops, tours, special social functions, and informal gatherings.

In Des Moines the orientation program was developed as a responsibility of all members of the teaching group and laymen from the community.

In Portland the board of education and the state department of education were added to the teacher group which participated in the planning and executing of the induction program. Educational and civic organizations provided conveyances for sight-seeing trips, and restaurants provided box lunches. The PTA was responsible for a picnic, and the teachers' organizations provided teas and lectures by distinguished people. The civic theater and symphony orchestras provided an evening of entertainment.

In Wilmington, Del., the teachers assumed much of the responsibility for orientation.

At Tucson, Ariz., in addition to the meetings provided by the professional staff, a community breakfast was provided with leading citizens from more than thirty groups of the community participating.

In Corpus Christi, teachers, administrators, leaders from industry, the professions, civic clubs, and other aspects of community life participated.

The same investigator concluded that<sup>3</sup>

1. Effective orientation programs for teachers new to a school system result in more effective teaching.
2. Careful planning in advance by teachers working with administrators is the most promising practice.
3. There is considerable lag between what administrators say is done and what is actually done.
4. The most promising techniques are those which are cooperative in origin and practice.
5. Teachers should play larger roles in programs of orientation.
6. Orientation programs carried out by teachers are more effective than those carried out by administrators.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*



There are many school systems other than those cited which have developed effective induction programs for teachers new to the system, and the reader can undoubtedly think of many other devices and techniques which have been used with success in one or more schools of his own acquaintance. But it seems more fruitful here to attack the problem of orientation in three distinct steps, first, to establish some basic principles which can guide us in developing policies, second, to set forth some fundamental policies which will enable the school people, wherever they may be located, to, third, develop specific techniques consonant with the principles and policies developed.

The most recent comprehensive study of induction techniques was made by Wallace.<sup>4</sup> His sampling included a reasonably large representation from each of the recognized levels; it included both urban and rural teachers, it included an almost equal distribution of men and women, it included married and single teachers, it included secondary as well as elementary teachers, it included chiefly those who had been newly inducted, it included teachers who had had teaching experience in from one to eight communities, and it included school systems which appeared to be relatively representative of schools over the country.<sup>5</sup>

The study involved a survey of the literature, personal visits to schools systems, use of a check sheet, and cooperation of 136 newly inducted teachers.

The problems of the newly inducted teachers, listed in their order of frequency of mention, were reported as follows:

1. Learning administrative routines, reports, and procedures.
2. Gaining an understanding of the marking system.
3. Handling disciplinary problems.
4. Getting materials.
5. Acquiring an understanding of the school philosophy.
6. Establishing good teacher relationships.
7. Making professional adjustment to other teaching personnel.
8. Becoming adjusted to building facilities.
9. Adjusting to teacher-class load.
10. Adjusting to demand for teachers' time and energy after school hours.
11. Establishing good working relationships with the principal.
12. Getting used to unattractive surroundings.
13. Utilizing auxiliary teaching aids.
14. Living on inadequate salary.
15. Discovering ways to use community resources.
16. Organizing class work.

<sup>4</sup> Morris Wallace, "New Teachers' Evaluation of Induction Techniques," *North Central Association Quarterly*, 25(4):381-394 (April, 1951). See also pp. 238-251 (October, 1950) and pp. 291-309 (January, 1951).

<sup>5</sup> Wallace, "Induction of New Teachers into Service," p. 246.



17. Adjusting to pupil-teacher ratio.
18. Establishing working relations with parents.
19. Becoming informed concerning community culture and tradition.
20. Finding satisfying recreational outlets in the community.
21. Participating in community social, political, and economic life.
22. Knowing assignment before assuming duties.
23. Understanding supervisory practice.
24. Becoming informed with respect to community problems.
25. Securing pleasant living conditions.
26. Selecting and establishing satisfying social contacts in the community.
27. Getting conferences with the principal.
28. Adjusting to new curriculum and new courses of study.
29. Knowing that the teacher was on trial.
30. Feeling inferior with respect to superiors.
31. Adjusting to assignment to teach outside field of preparation.
32. Understanding sick-leave policy.
33. Meeting difficulties with colleagues of a nonprofessional nature.
34. Handling assignments to teach classes composed of problem children.
35. Feeling insecure, never having a feeling of "belonging."
36. Feelings of inferiority with respect to other teachers.
37. Disturbances due to problems of personal love life.
38. Understanding retirement policy.
39. Disturbing reactions to dependency load.
40. Being assigned to teach retarded children.
41. Dating.
42. Reacting to community repressions concerning personal pleasures.
43. Worrying over personal health problems.
44. Reacting to contractual repressions.
45. Worrying about such problems as marriage.

Wallace found that the twenty-four most difficult problems, as opposed to the most frequently mentioned problems, were in order of difficulty:

1. Identifying the school's philosophy.
2. Getting used to poor or inadequate working conditions.
3. Meeting demands for assignments to duties requiring teacher to work after school hours.
4. Learning administrative routine and procedures required.
5. Finding a way to live like others in community on inadequate salary.
6. Handling disciplinary problems.
7. Adjusting to inadequate building facilities.
8. Adjusting to teacher-class load.
9. Understanding the school marking system.
10. Securing pleasant living accommodations.
11. Getting used to nonconstructive supervision.
12. Finding and establishing satisfying recreational outlets.
13. Adjusting to drab, unattractive surroundings.



14. Discovering and using community resources.
15. Not knowing assignment before assuming duties.
16. Participating in community life.
17. Establishing good teacher-pupil relationships.
18. Establishing good working relationships with the principal.
19. Becoming informed concerning community problems.
20. Adjusting to pupil-teacher load.
21. Organizing class work.
22. Adjusting to teaching personnel.
23. Establishing good working relations with parents.
24. Utilizing auxiliary teaching aids.<sup>6</sup>

The same investigator reported that teachers themselves felt that the following procedures should be followed at times suggested in order to achieve the best results:<sup>7</sup>

1. Procedures at the time of interview.
  - a. Provide new teachers with definite and specific information regarding teaching and building assignments.
  - b. Arrange for a conference between the teacher and his building principal.
  - c. Be sure that teacher is assigned to teach only in the area for which the teacher is especially prepared.
  - d. Take positive steps to help the teacher secure living accommodations.
2. Procedures after election and before opening of school.
  - a. Arrange for special service to the teacher in orienting the teacher to the school plant.
  - b. Hold an orientation conference for all new teachers, with opportunities given to ask questions.
  - c. Give additional help if it is needed by some in securing adequate housing. (This seemed to be a crucial point.)
  - d. Supply all new teachers with handbooks, guides, and bulletins explaining school policies.
3. Procedures on the opening day of school.
  - a. Hold a general faculty meeting to discuss and explain over-all school policies.
  - b. Show new teachers where the pupil personnel records are stored, and make such records available to all new teachers.
  - c. Provide instruction in the mechanics of pupil accounting, pupil personnel records, bookkeeping, etc.
  - d. Provide special aid in acquainting the new teacher with all the special services of the school.
4. Procedures to be employed early in the school year.
  - a. Redouble efforts to acquaint teachers with pupil personnel records.

<sup>6</sup> Morris Wallace, "Problems Experienced by 136 New Teachers during their Induction into Service," *North Central Association Quarterly*, 25(3):292 (January, 1951).

<sup>7</sup> Wallace, "New Teachers' Evaluation of Induction Techniques," pp. 387-390.



- b. Arrange for personal conferences between the teacher and all supervisory agents.
- c. Provide thorough and well-planned assistance program for acquainting the new teacher with the school's system for evaluating achievements.
- d. Arrange for second, third, and further visits to *help* the new teacher with problems as they occur.
- e. Give special instruction to each new teacher in the mechanics of school bookkeeping and record keeping.
- f. Make special efforts to inform new teachers with respect to community problems.
- g. Arrange for new teachers to be escorted to receptions sponsored by PTA or similar groups.
- h. Provide the new teacher with periodic bulletins explaining supervisory details.
- i. Arrange for interschool social affairs to facilitate socialization.
- j. Provide frequent visits by supervisory agents to help the teacher, not to evaluate the teacher.

The writer is certain that the reader will agree that

1. The orientation program should be based upon purposes which are developed in advance and which are understood by all those concerned with carrying out the plans.
2. The orientation program should be timely; that is, it should give new teachers help at the time help is needed, not three weeks late or three weeks too early.
3. The orientation program should be authoritative and accurate. Information presented should be accurate information.
4. The orientation program should be sufficiently comprehensive to ensure that the new teacher has seen the basic structure of the school and the community, the basic philosophy of the school in the community, and the essential elements of administrative machinery.
5. The orientation program should be carried out by all large segments of the people concerned with the welfare of the new teacher.
6. There should be periodic evaluations of the orientation program to discover weaknesses and strengths.
7. The professional personnel of the schools should take the initiative in developing an orientation program.
8. The orientation program should have the full support of the board of education.
9. The orientation program should be the product of cooperative thinking and planning of the entire professional staff.

Pursuant to the principles which have been stated, a school system should institute certain policies which are likely to ensure the establishment of the type program for orienting new teachers which has a high degree of probability of achieving success in this venture. Since the



board of education in any school district has been designated by law as the official policy-making body with respect to the operation of schools, the board itself should establish certain policies which are conducive to a sound program of orientation. Some suggestions are given below.

SUGGESTED POLICIES TO BE ADOPTED BY BOARDS OF EDUCATION  
GOVERNING TEACHER ORIENTATION

PRELIMINARY STATEMENT:

Because the board of education of this district believes that the best interests of children demand teachers who, from the first day of employment until separation from the school system, are informed concerning the purposes, goals, and procedures established by the board of education for the operation of schools in this community; because the board believes that the best interests of children demand happy, healthy, enthusiastic teachers; because the board believes that teachers are the most important part of the whole school machinery which has been developed to educate our children; and because the board believes that an appropriate orientation program for teachers new to the system should implement these beliefs; we, the board of education, hereby establish the following policies to ensure an adequate program for orientation of new teachers in our schools:

SAMPLE OF BOARD OF EDUCATION POLICIES:

1. It shall be the duty of the superintendent of schools to develop, in full cooperation with the professional staff of the schools of this district, a well-planned program of teacher orientation.
2. It shall be the duty of the superintendent of schools to submit, annually, to this board of education the general plan developed by him in full cooperation with the professional staff and to submit, as a part of the annual budget proposed by him, requests for allotment of funds necessary to carry out such plans for the forthcoming year.
3. It shall be the duty of the superintendent of schools to invite community agencies such as the PTA, the churches, the service clubs, the Chambers of Commerce, the labor organizations, the YMCA, the YWCA, the Federated Women's Club, the American Legion and similar organizations, and other local community organizations to participate in the program of orientation.
4. It shall be the duty of the superintendent of schools to recommend to this board of education the particular role of the board of education in the orientation program.
5. It shall be the duty of the superintendent to see that the program of orientation is carried out, but this shall not mean that his duties extend no further than his own activities or to the activities of the principals, administrative assistants, or supervisors. The board specifically holds the superintendent responsible for establishment of an orientation program which utilizes the thinking and efforts of all the professional staff and which is so



designed to encourage and foster participation by parents, board members, and community agencies.

6. All professional personnel in the schools should participate in the planning of and execution of the program of orientation of new teachers as developed in the plan submitted to the board of education by the superintendent of schools.
7. It shall be the duty of the superintendent of schools to establish the machinery necessary to periodic evaluations of the orientation programs, and such evaluation shall be so designed as to ensure the board of the reactions of new teachers to the program. It shall be the duty of the superintendent to evaluate the effect of the program on general morale in the school and community. A report on the orientation program shall appear in each annual report of the superintendent of schools to the board of education.

Some school administrators will object to writing the above statement of policy into the minutes of the board of education on the ground that boards of education should not be bothered with such details and that orientation is a professional problem, not a board problem. The writer cannot agree with either of these contentions. First of all, boards of education *are* the legal authorities, and they *are* established in the forty-eight states *for the specific purpose of establishing policies for the best interests of the schools*. Experience of the author as well as commitment to principle causes him to assert that *boards of education should never abdicate on the level of developing over-all policies*. Second, the assumption that orientation is purely a professional problem is erroneous, as any beginning teacher will agree. No teacher coming in for the first time in a school system can escape the need for community acceptance, parent acceptance, and board of education acceptance.

One of the chief reasons for proposing that the board of education should officially establish policies governing orientation of new teachers is that it is likely to make it much easier for administrators to carry out such a program. One great weakness in the school administrative machinery in many schools is that the superintendent's duties and responsibilities have never been appropriately defined by the board. As a result he develops his own concept of duties and responsibilities, some of which are readily accepted by the board and soon become traditional. Unfortunately, others are never adequately understood by the board and as a result are under periodic attack by members of the board or the community. Sadly enough, too, many of the duties and responsibilities of such administrators are openly opposed by boards of education, or would be if the board were aware of them, and administrators find themselves in "hot water" as a result.

Another reason for proposing that boards of education adopt policies with respect to orientation is that when such policies appear in the min-



utes of the board, teachers are much more likely to participate in planning and execution of an orientation program. Many teachers become habituated to their own little private worlds, not so much as a result of their own disinterest but more as a result of a feeling that the school authorities are not concerned with the services of the teacher outside the classroom.

It should be remembered that no suggestion has been made here to the effect that the board of education should develop, initiate, or carry out the orientation plan. On the contrary, it has been recommended that the board of education should establish policies which will ensure the existence of a plan cooperatively developed by the professional people in the schools.

SUGGESTED POLICIES TO BE ADOPTED BY THE  
SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

Pursuant to the rules and regulations of the board of education of this school district pertaining to orientation of teachers new to the system, the superintendent of schools announces the following policies for the establishment of a cooperative approach to the problem of orientation of new teachers:

1. Each principal should be responsible for informing all teachers served by him of the rules and regulations of the board pertaining to orientation of new teachers.
2. Each principal should request the teachers served by him to elect a committee of three or more teachers to serve as an orientation committee for the group, and this committee should submit proposals to the principal.
3. Proposals submitted to principals should include suggestions for acquainting new teachers with
  - a. Details concerning
    - (1) Clock system.
    - (2) Room assignments.
    - (3) Daily schedules.
    - (4) Daily bulletins.
    - (5) Mailboxes.
    - (6) Phone system.
    - (7) Building faculty meetings.
    - (8) General faculty meetings.
    - (9) Teacher absence.
    - (10) Homeroom duties.
    - (11) School calendar.
    - (12) Hall passing.
    - (13) Fire drill and air-raid drill.
    - (14) Use and care of rooms.
    - (15) Equipment.
    - (16) Materials.
  - b. The school building.



- c. Departmental organization and function (if any).
- d. Supervision of instruction.
- e. The guidance program.
- f. Marks, marking, grades, etc.
- g. Discipline.
- h. Functions of special-service agents.
  - i. Functions of such offices as registrar, controller, nurses, attendance, bookroom, visual-aids center, speech clinics, reading clinics.
  - j. Organization of student body, classes, and clubs.
  - k. School committees.
  - l. Other important matters which the committee deems appropriate.
4. Committees should utilize information provided by the principal and by the superintendent (in the form of mimeographed or printed materials supplied).
5. The committee should select from its own membership one person to serve with the principal on a general school committee for outlining the over-all plan for the orientation program.
6. The committee should submit its plan for the local building to the principal not later than March 1 preceding the September of the year in which the plan is to be in operation.
7. It should be the duty of the principal to submit the plan of the teacher committee as prepared by the committee, together with his own comments thereon, in writing to the superintendent of schools not later than March 15. A copy of the comments of the principal shall be sent to each member of the teacher committee.
8. It is sincerely hoped that all teachers in a given building will assist with the execution of plans devised by the teacher committee.
9. The general school committee consists of
  - a. One teacher elected from each building.
  - b. The principal of each building.
  - c. One nurse.
  - d. School physician.
  - e. One administrative assistant selected by the superintendent.
  - f. The superintendent of schools.
10. The general school committee should submit a tentative plan in mimeographed form to all teachers, and each principal should call a meeting of the teachers served by him for free and open discussion of the proposed plan. After discussion the teachers in the individual schools may by official vote request changes in the plan. Following the completion of this step, the general committee should revise the proposal in light of the suggestions made, and this should be the plan sent to the board of education as the plan for the orientation of new teachers.
11. At the end of each semester a program of evaluation should take place on two levels: (1) by building, and (2) on a school-wide basis. The school building committee should devise and administer its own evaluative devices or instruments, and the all-school committee should devise and administer the all-school evaluative instruments.



12. The results of all evaluations should be available to all staff members so that in subsequent years we can improve our program.
13. Agencies outside the school, as determined by staff deliberation, should be invited to participate in the orientation program.
14. Teachers' organizations should play very important roles in orientation as determined by the staff. These organizations should be free, also, to develop coordinated programs, provided that their plans are submitted to the all-school committee for review to prevent duplication.
15. These policies may be changed by the staff acting through building committees and the all-school committee.

The suggestions presented concerning policies for adoption by boards of education and by superintendents have been given because so many practitioners in the field of school administration are critical of the college professor for dealing with problems only in generalities. The writer has suggested policies; doubtless the practitioner in the field of public education can modify them for the better; certainly he will want to adjust them to his own local situation. Obviously a principal of a township high school in Illinois who is directly responsible to a board of education and who is the administrator for only one school building, and a secondary school at that, has a different problem than does the superintendent of schools in Hartford, Conn.

Techniques employed in orientation programs have been many and varied. The earliest procedures were, of course, extremely formal and stiff because they were concerned primarily with providing the teacher with information essential to meeting his classroom obligations.

Theoretically, orientation of new teachers should begin with the first interview of the prospective teacher and should continue as long as the teacher serves the school system. Practically, we think of orientation as beginning with the original interview and ending some time during the first year of teaching; after the first year further orientation is usually on an informal and unplanned basis.

When a teacher first comes to a community as a prospective teacher in that community, he is entitled to get certain basic information about the school and the community before making any decision regarding willingness to accept a teaching position in the schools of the community. Such basic information should include:

1. The exact nature of the vacancy which is being filled.
2. The general philosophy of the superintendent of schools and of the staff of the school.
3. The status of the schools in terms of
  - a. Financial support by the community.
  - b. Curriculum development and changes recently made and contemplated.
  - c. Physical plants.



- d.* Teaching load.
  - e.* Salary schedules.
  - f.* Community attitudes.
4. Copies of rules and regulations governing professional employees.
  5. General picture of the community.
  6. Information concerning organization of the schools.
  7. Information concerning teachers' organizations, teachers' leagues, teachers' unions, and the like.
  8. Information concerning cost of living in the community.
  9. Information concerning housing.
  10. Information concerning restaurants, etc.
  11. Information concerning transportation.
  12. Information concerning the community in general.
  13. Information concerning the particular building in which duties are to be performed.
  14. Information concerning special requirements for the position being filled.

After a teacher has accepted a position in the schools, a new series of steps should be taken to orient the new teacher. These steps should include the following:

1. Welcome letters, phone calls, personal visits, and other forms of communication from
  - a.* The superintendent of schools.
  - b.* The board of education.
  - c.* The principal of the school in which the teacher is to work.
  - d.* The teachers in the building where he is to work.
  - e.* The teachers' organizations, such as the local unit of the state teachers' association, the faculty club, the teachers' league, or the teachers' union.
  - f.* The PTA serving the school in which the teacher has been assigned.
  - g.* The Chamber of Commerce.
  - h.* Various community-service organizations.

Many school administrators will shrink from this sort of thing because they are afraid of the work involved. But there is no need for such attitudes. Once a teacher is employed, the school administrator could, by post card or mimeographed form, quickly notify appropriate persons in all the areas mentioned that Mary King of 26 E. 4th St., Peoria, Ill., had been employed to teach third grade of the Lincoln School and invite the recipient of the card or form to drop Miss King a letter of welcome. The writer was so received in one position, and no amount of discourse here could begin to tell the reader of the tremendously pleasant feelings he had as a result.

2. The superintendent should send the newly employed teacher all mimeographed or printed material prepared by the staff for the use of new teachers and should indicate exactly when and where the teacher was expected to report for work.
3. The local school system, through its professional staff should see that the new teacher locates a place to live. A list of possible rooms, apartments,



and houses should be sent to the new teacher together with evaluations of them in terms of cost, convenience of location, quality of accommodations, and so forth. This material could quite appropriately be gathered by the professional staff and assembled by them, leaving only the transmittal of information to the superintendent.

4. Someone in the system, preferably a committee of teachers, acting through its chairman or the principal, should inquire by letter or phone or otherwise concerning the exact time of arrival of the newly appointed teacher who is seeking a room, apartment, or house. Some staff member should be assigned to meet the new teacher at the stated time and at a place agreed upon for the purpose of acting as a guide for the new teacher in looking for housing. There is all the difference in the world between hunting alone in a strange city and hunting with a guide.
5. Similar arrangements should be made to acquaint the newly employed teacher with such establishments as
  - a. Restaurants.
  - b. Churches.
  - c. Theaters.
  - d. Hospitals.
  - e. YMCA and YWCA.
  - f. Other important community agencies.
6. For the first week a new single teacher is in a strange community, someone should be assigned by the professional staff to offer to accompany the teacher to dinner and to various community sources of entertainment or leisure. This can best be done as a result of teacher planning.
7. Arrangements should be made to accompany the new teacher to all meetings of the staff which have been arranged so that the new teacher is not required to fend for himself as a stranger.

The teachers in the building in which the newly appointed teacher is to work should devise ways and means of informing the newcomer concerning such items as the following:

- |                               |                                     |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Time clocks.               | 11. Attendance system and register. |
| 2. Room assignment.           | 12. The details of school register. |
| 3. Daily schedule.            | 13. How to obtain supplies.         |
| 4. Daily bulletins.           | 14. Materials of interest.          |
| 5. Mailboxes.                 | 15. Air-raid drill.                 |
| 6. Phone system.              | 16. Fire drill.                     |
| 7. Building faculty meetings. | 17. Hall passing.                   |
| 8. Teacher absences.          | 18. Equipment.                      |
| 9. Homeroom duties.           | 19. Textbooks.                      |
| 10. School calendar.          | 20. Library.                        |

A systematic plan should be devised by the over-all school planning committee for orientation of the new teachers to supply information on the following:



1. Departmental organization and operation.
2. Supervised study plans.
3. Supervision of instruction.
4. Organization of the guidance services.
5. Details concerning marks and marking.
6. Details concerning report cards.
7. School policies with respect to discipline.
8. The functions of such special services as
  - a. Registrar.
  - b. Controller or business manager.
  - c. School physician.
  - d. Nursing services.
  - e. Attendance service.
  - f. Audio-visual aids.
  - g. Speech clinics.
  - h. Reading clinics.
  - i. Special services in such fields as music, art, physical education, etc.
  - j. School committees.
  - k. Extracurricular assignments.
  - l. Parent-teacher meetings.

The administrative agents in the school system should make accurate information on the following topics available to new teachers:

1. Organization chart of the school showing responsibilities and functions.
2. School policies concerning
  - a. Cooperative planning by the staff.
  - b. Working with the community.
  - c. Instructional performance.
3. School policies concerning
  - a. Sick leave.
  - b. Health insurance.
  - c. Accident insurance.
  - d. Life insurance.
  - e. Leaves of absence for reasons other than illness.
  - f. Sabbatical leaves.
  - g. Maternity leaves.
4. School policies with respect to
  - a. Salaries and salary schedules.
  - b. The hours of service in a school day.
  - c. In-service education.
  - d. Professional organizations and meetings.

Since conditions in each school system are unique, it is fruitless to attempt to set forth here a long list of techniques which have been found to be useful in schools. Just a few have been listed to give direction to the thinking of those who are concerned with the problem.

In a particular school system, the important thing to remember is that



by organizing the staff to work cooperatively on the problem of orientation, the techniques and devices most appropriate to the situation are almost certain to be developed.

One aspect of orientation programs has been sadly neglected in school systems, namely, an evaluation program to determine whether the plans of action have been effective in terms of the reactions of teachers new to the system. Such evaluation should be continuous and should supply the administrator and the staff with positive clues essential to improvement of the program.

Some sort of evaluative instrument should be devised which could be submitted to every new teacher at the end of the first two or three months of service. Such an instrument might list all the techniques used from beginning to end and request evaluation of each technique on some scale such as:

- 0 Negligible value
- 1 Slight value
- 2 Moderate value
- 3 Considerable value
- 4 Extremely valuable

The instrument might well include, also, space for comment upon the program and for suggestions for improvement. Similarly, the instrument could well include listing of problems which the beginning teacher met which were not covered at all by the orientation process.

By systematically collecting the reactions of teachers new to the school system, the administration and the professional staff would have essential data for succeeding years.

## SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Describe the orientation you received when you first began work on your present job.
2. Describe practices used in your school for orientation of new teachers. Evaluate these practices in terms of their effectiveness.
3. Talk with several new teachers in your school, and secure from them an evaluation of orientation practices they have encountered.
4. To what extent have the teachers in your school had a hand in developing, planning, and executing the program of orientation?
5. How do you feel about the proposal made in this chapter concerning policies to be adopted by the board of education?
6. How do you feel about the suggested policies to be adopted by the superintendent of schools?
7. Will teachers object to wide participation in programs of orientation? Give reasons for your answer.



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## CHAPTER 5 *In-service Education of Teachers*

The term "in-service education" has come to have many meanings. In the eyes of many laymen and board members, the term still means course work done at a college, university, or other teacher-educating agency subsequent to employment in the schools. Unfortunately, too, many teachers and school administrators continue to interpret "in-service education" as meaning college or university course work involving credit. These persistent points of view toward in-service education account for the fact that credit for college courses over and above the minimum requirements have come to be "legal tender" for teachers in terms of securing higher salaries.

Nearly every school system indicates that it hopes to develop a program for educating teachers in service, but most school systems are somewhat puzzled concerning the agencies which should be used in carrying out such a program. Those who have made extensive study of this problem assert that the following agencies should be used maximally:

1. The local school system itself.
2. The universities, colleges, and teachers' colleges within reasonable proximity.
3. State departments of education.
4. State and national teachers' organizations.
5. The community in which the schools are located.
6. Industry and business agencies.
7. Labor organizations.

### *The Role of the Local School System*

One of the most neglected agencies of the seven listed has been the local school system. Oddly enough, the educational profession has committed the error of separating the educating of teachers from the actual task of teaching. Boards of education, school administrators, and teachers have assumed, to a considerable degree, that the chief source of growth of teachers lies in the practice of attending summer sessions,



attending extension classes, and otherwise engaging in study outside the sphere of the school itself. While it cannot be denied that such activities are of great significance and importance, yet one of the most fruitful agencies for educating teachers in service could and should be the school system itself.

If an in-service education program is to be a significant experience, one which can be easily and readily translated into actual classroom practice, it must be based upon challenging problems which have developed within the framework of the local school itself. There can be little doubt that some teachers attend summer sessions, extension classes, and similar institutional agencies for the express purpose of gathering data pertinent to the solution of particular problems which have arisen out of actual classroom situations, but the large majority of teachers attend these sessions with a vague and haphazard notion of problems to be considered. It is unfortunate, indeed, that so large a number of teachers doing graduate work in education are doing so primarily because earning an advanced degree entitles them to a better salary or to consideration for advancement and promotion. The situation as it now exists results in teachers relying upon summer and extension study as the chief means for purchase of "legal tender" for increases in salary, a practice which easily results in divorcing the learning experience from the problems faced by teachers. The result is that artificial or semiartificial problems are often created as stimuli for work.

The teacher needs a genuine situation with a continuity of activity in which he is interested for its own sake as a basis for in-service activities. By relying upon summer sessions and extension courses as the chief source of growth, substitutions take place; degrees, rank, prestige, new and better positions become the goals in which the teacher becomes interested for their own sake. This certainly violates the simple rules of learning as we know them. The teacher who blindly continues his education without beginning with problems from his own school which demand solution misses the essential factor which is conducive to professional growth, even though an advanced degree may be the outcome.

To grow professionally, teachers need objective information about real situations with which to conduct a program of inquiry. Unfortunately, present practices tend to utilize books and magazines as the source of both information and situation. Lack of reality of experience is again the result. Furthermore, the attitudes which spring up from getting used to and accepting half-understood and ill-digested theory that is sometimes found in the college classroom may actually weaken vigor and efficiency of thought.

Real learning should suggest solutions to real problems which the teacher has the occasion and opportunity to test in application. When



the teacher is removed from the actual classroom situation, he is forced to imagine or foresee the problems which will face him in the future and to deal with these problems in an imaginary sort of way. Often the best he can do is to experiment in imagination with problems arising out of imagination.

Hence, it seems clear that to rely upon outside agencies without utilizing the local school system is indeed an unfortunate mistake. The local school system should be the center and core of any intelligently designed program for educating teachers in service. We should avoid encouraging teachers to continue their education in institutions of higher learning in the expectation that through such activity alone they will obtain a store of new ideas which will somehow transform them as teachers in the schools. We must, rather, seriously attack the problems within the schools themselves and then utilize the colleges, universities, and teacher-educating agencies as eminently useful agents for helping teachers solve these problems.

The first step which should be taken by the schools is the organization of the professional staff into a fused unity for the purpose of coming to agreement upon basic commitments concerning the educational task at hand. This procedure takes time. What do we as teachers believe regarding our responsibilities as teachers? The answers to this question are crucial. Teachers should be given the opportunity, the time, and the financial encouragement to formulate their commitments and beliefs as a basis for inquiry, to formulate plans of action, and to engage in evaluative activities.

It would be extremely unfortunate for the administrator to issue statements purporting to be the commitments of teachers, although this practice is all too frequently followed. If teachers are to attack the real problems of the school, and thereby grow in service, they themselves must come to agreement upon the core of their thinking or they will be working at cross-purposes.

After the staff has arrived at mutual agreements upon the basic purposes of the school, it should examine the practices of the school in terms of the basic agreements. Inquiry of this kind is essential to growth of teachers in service. When inquiry has discovered problems which are significant, the staff should formulate possible solutions. There may be many ideas offered by the staff, and all of them should receive careful consideration. Plans of action suggested for solving problems should then be discussed freely and openly. If it is found by this procedure that a plan is unlikely to succeed, it can be recalled and eliminated before damage is done. All probable solutions should be examined and weighed until it becomes apparent that some plan has a greater likelihood of succeeding than any other.



At this point the teachers may, and probably will, feel the need for study at colleges, universities, or other institutions of higher learning, or at this point the staff may feel the need for inviting such agencies to send experts and special consultants to conduct workshops designed to help the teachers solve the problems at hand.

It is here that teachers will feel the need for guidance of college professors and other professional leaders, a need for enlarged opportunities available in college libraries, a need for opportunities to read research, to examine the literature, and to gather data essential to the problem at hand. Teachers thus attending graduate programs are destined to grow because they are attending with a purpose clearly in mind and because they expect to return to the school with pertinent, useful, and important information for the entire group in finding adequate solutions to their common problems.

After teachers have found a plan of action which gives great promise of solving the difficulty, their next step is experimentation. The experiment need not be one which spreads itself over the entire school system, but may be the trying out of the plan under controlled conditions in small areas of the school. All teachers should study the experiment in action and should be prepared to evaluate cooperatively the methods used in conducting it. Very often teachers will be found to be antagonistic toward experimentation in the school because the plan and purpose of the experiment have been dictated to them by the administrative heads of the school. Common sense should tell us that such antagonism would arise.

But if the program of experimentation is the outgrowth of cooperative efforts, the chief obstacles are automatically removed; for when experiments are cooperatively formulated, teachers have a sense of ownership which eliminates personal animosity.

After the experimentation has run its course, teachers should initiate and carry out a well-organized program of evaluation. Such a program of evaluation is likely to be most productive in terms of teacher growth. Here again, courses offered by universities and colleges can be most helpful and of greatest worth to the teachers.

Once the evaluation has been completed, the staff will usually discover that new problems have arisen which demand further inquiry, additional study, and more experimentation. Thus teachers become continuously engaged in an ongoing process of growth which is conducive to participation in graduate programs for securing help rather than for being awarded degrees.

Schools should take the lead in the whole program of educating teachers in service. If the schools take the lead and request colleges and universities to help them in the solution of their own problems, graduate



schools will be enabled to do a much more effective job than they are now doing. Some of the most promising techniques for use in the local school system are listed here.

#### TECHNIQUES OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION<sup>1</sup>

##### PROMISING TECHNIQUES FOR IMPROVING INSTRUCTION:

1. Visiting teachers in one's own school according to a plan devised by teachers themselves.
2. Visiting teachers in other schools according to plans devised by the staff.
3. Holding departmental meetings to study curriculum development.
4. Experimenting with new classroom procedures according to plans devised by the staff.
5. Making surveys of pupil problems, interests, and needs.
6. Surveying graduates for facts needed in curriculum development.
7. Holding departmental seminars open to all teachers to discuss departmental problems.
8. Exchanging teachers with other schools.
9. Having pupils and parents, as well as teachers, serve on committees concerned with pupil activities and problems.
10. Electing committees to conduct experiments within the school.
11. Electing committees to evaluate practices, experiments, etc.
12. Having teachers participate in the selection of instructional material.
13. Having teachers of one grade meet to discuss common problems.
14. Having teachers visit homes of pupils.
15. Having teachers devise criteria for the evaluation of teaching.
16. Organizing teachers into committees to carry out a program of cooperative research in summer school.
17. Organizing teachers to study recent educational research bearing on problems of the school.
18. Setting up problems for study which require experimentation.
19. Having teachers arrange exhibits of work done in their classes.
20. Having two or more teachers cooperatively teach one class, working and planning together.
21. Electing teachers to study tests and testing.
22. Making careful study of maladjusted pupils.
23. Having teachers, through committees, develop a guidance bulletin.
24. Surveying the vocational opportunities in the community.
25. Providing time for teachers to interview pupils.
26. Organizing the staff to study the socio-economic background of every pupil.
27. Electing committees to study particular phases of curriculum development.
28. Organizing the entire staff into committees to study curriculum development.

<sup>1</sup> C. A. Weber, "Techniques of In-service Education Applied in the North Central Secondary Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly*, 17:195-198 (October, 1942).



29. Organizing small group-study meetings for study of the curriculum.
30. Experimenting with a "core curriculum."
31. Devising (by teachers) an organized program of summer study for the purpose of making a cooperative attack upon specific school problems.
32. Organizing a summer workshop to study curriculum development.
33. Including parents and pupils on curriculum committees.
34. Electing committees to study recent theories of learning and to keep staff informed through oral and written reports.
35. Electing committees to keep staff informed regarding current educational research.
36. Electing committees to keep staff informed of current experiments in progress in classroom procedures, curriculum, etc.
37. Showing movies to illustrate newer methods of teaching.

**PROMISING TECHNIQUES FOR IMPROVING STAFF RELATIONS:**

1. Having teachers preside at general meetings of the staff.
2. Keeping accurate minutes of general staff meetings.
3. Making minutes of staff meetings available to teachers.
4. Electing committees to plan staff meetings.
5. Holding staff meetings on school time by making provision for them in the program.
6. Serving light refreshments in connection with staff meetings.
7. Extensive use of panel discussions.
8. Having committees make reports on topics selected by the staff.
9. Having open discussion following panel or committee discussions.
10. Selecting staff members to talk to the group on specific topics.
11. Organizing teachers into committees to study specific problems.
12. Having teachers prepare and issue school handbooks for new teachers and new pupils.
13. Providing for sabbatical leave to study, travel, or recover health.
14. Providing cumulative sick leave for teachers.
15. Providing periodic health examinations at school expense.
16. Providing a cooperative medical, hospital, and health service for teachers.
17. Having teachers cooperatively plan recreational and social activities for teachers.
18. Having teachers develop a cooperative program for securing improved living conditions for teachers.
19. Giving teachers a definite part in the selection of new staff members.
20. Having teachers plan and execute procedures for the orientation of new teachers.
21. Electing committees rather than having the principal appoint them.
22. Having teachers determine who is to appoint committees.
23. Selecting committees, the selecting being done by teachers, to devise plans of action in connection with policy making.
24. Having teachers select committees to gather facts needed for policy making or devising plans of action.
25. Using committee reports for bases of plans of action of the staff.



26. Holding a series of seminars a week before school opens to study plans for the year.
27. Providing for teacher participation in planning new buildings.
28. Having teachers prepare a standard supply list for use in purchasing supplies.
29. Having teachers make a list of their problems for use of the staff in planning faculty meetings.
30. Having teachers choose their own leaders for discussions.
31. Electing a committee of teachers to work with the administrator in planning the school budget.
32. Electing a committee of teachers to work with the administrator and board of education in developing a salary schedule.
33. Having teachers cooperatively develop a statement of their own philosophy.
34. Electing committees to suggest readings for teachers.
35. Electing a principal's advisory committee.
36. Holding informal meetings of the staff.
37. Holding joint meetings of board of education and faculty.
38. Electing committees to assist in planning the class schedule.
39. Having teachers select topics for special study.
40. Having teachers devise a plan for basing salary increases on evidence of growth.
41. Granting teachers short leaves with pay to attend conventions.
42. Giving salary increments or bonuses for active participation in experimentation within the school.
43. Giving salary increases or bonuses for extensive activity in study of local problems, curriculum revision, guidance, etc.
44. Giving salary increases for publication of magazine articles growing out of study of problems within the school.
45. Providing a faculty browsing room and lounge.

PROMISING TECHNIQUES FOR IMPROVING COMMUNITY RELATIONS:

1. Making time and place of general staff meetings known to parents, pupils, and the general public.
2. Inviting parents, pupils, and the general public to attend staff meetings.
3. Issuing press bulletins, mimeographed bulletins, etc., to inform the public of staff meetings.
4. Holding panel discussions in which teachers, pupils, and parents participate.
5. Having pupils, parents, and the public participate in the discussion in faculty meetings.
6. Sending questionnaires to parents, pupils, and teachers to secure ideas for suitable topics for discussion.
7. Holding forums open to parents, teachers, and pupils.
8. Having parents, teachers, and pupils give talks in general faculty meetings.
9. Having pupils, parents, and teachers serve on committees concerned with pupil activities and problems.



10. Having teachers prepare weekly bulletins for parents.
11. Having teachers write daily or weekly press bulletins.
12. Organizing a community coordinating council on which teachers elected by the staff serve.
13. Including pupils, parents, and others on committees to study curriculum development.
14. Having teachers develop a guidance bulletin for use of pupils, teachers, and parents.
15. Having teachers make a survey of community resources for curriculum development.
16. Electing committees of teachers to work with parents, board members, and pupils in evaluation of the school.
17. Including pupils and parents on planning committees in connection with extracurricular activities.
18. Having teachers, pupils, and parents plan assembly programs.
19. Releasing teachers from school duties to take part in programs of local organizations.

Beasley<sup>2</sup> suggests five characteristics of an ideal in-service education program, as follows:

1. An ideal program for in-service education is one in which motivation for participation comes from within the individual.
2. An ideal program of in-service education is cooperatively planned.
3. An ideal program of in-service education is adapted to the needs of the participants.
4. An ideal program of in-service education provides for an interpretation to the public of both purposes and outcomes.
5. An ideal program of in-service education provides a plan for continuous evaluation and improvement of the effectiveness of the program by all concerned.

Beasley suggests a five-point scale for each of these characteristics. His scale is reproduced on pages 80 and 81.

The school itself can be the most fruitful agency for educating teachers in service provided that in its program it utilizes the opportunities and facilities of colleges, universities, and teacher-educating institutions to supplement and aid in the solution of problems within the school. As has been pointed out, teachers cooperatively working on their own problems will see the need for and the importance of attending summer sessions, extension classes, or taking leave for extended periods to give special attention to gathering data essential to the solution of problems being attacked in the schools.

<sup>2</sup> N. C. Beasley, "Evaluating In-service Programs," *The Teaching Profession Grows in Service*, Report of the New Hampshire Conference under auspices of the National Committee on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, Washington, 1949.



## Criteria of an Ideal Program of In-service Education

Superior	Good	Fair	Inferior	Poor
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1. An ideal program of in-service education is one in which motivation comes from within the individual.

Individual has complete freedom to participate or not.	Individual participates when the majority expresses support for purposes and activities of the program.	Individual participates to gain salary increases, promotions, etc.	Individual participates when administrators or other authorities direct with no specific penalty involved.	Individual participates for fear of losing his position.
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2. An ideal program of in-service education is cooperatively planned.

By representatives of all groups concerned with the educational program (teachers, administrators, board of education, and public.)	By representatives of all groups concerned with the educational program with administrators participating in an advisory capacity.	By group concerned, subject to subsequent approval of administrators.	By administrators for group concerned, subject to their acceptance.	By administrators for group concerned, with no opportunity for participation or acceptance by group concerned.
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3. An ideal program of in-service education is adapted to the needs of the participants.

Meets needs clearly identified by all groups concerned.	Meets needs of group concerned as determined only by themselves.	Meets needs of group concerned as determined by administrators in consultation with them.	Meets needs of group concerned as conceived by administrators or outside agencies only.	Program determined by purposes without regard to needs of group concerned.
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4. An ideal program of in-service education provides for an interpretation to the public of both purposes and outcomes.

Program purposes and outcomes are adequately explained to the public.	Program purposes and outcomes are partially explained to the public.	Program purposes are inadequately explained to the public.	Public is completely uninformed about program purposes.	Public is misinformed through unofficial sources.
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Criteria of an Ideal Program of In-service Education (*Continued*)

Superior	Good	Fair	Inferior	Poor
5. An ideal program of in-service education provides a plan for continuous evaluation and improvement of the effectiveness of the program by all concerned.				
Evaluation and improvement of all objectives by all participating groups for purposes of improving future programs.	Evaluation of some objectives by all, or evaluation of all objectives by some groups concerned.	Evaluation of some objectives by some acting independently.	Evaluation of a few objectives by individuals.	No attempt to evaluate.

SOURCE: N. C. Beasley, "Evaluating In-service Programs," in *The Teaching Profession Grows in Service*, Report of the New Hampshire Conference under auspices of the National Committee on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, Washington, 1949.

Similarly, local school systems can secure from such agencies professional help on their problems by means of local workshops, conferences, and course offerings, open chiefly to professional workers within the school system involved.

Pertinent to this, Dent<sup>3</sup> discovered from responses from 5,117 teachers that the colleges and universities should reexamine their offerings to the schools to include

1. More workshops within a school system during the year.
2. More extension courses in local school systems, subjects selected by the local school staff.
3. More workshops on college campuses with several consultants.
4. More short work conferences.
5. More course offerings with discussion-type procedures rather than lectures.
6. More summer workshops in the local school community rather than on campus of college.
7. More curriculum laboratories.
8. More special consultant services.
9. More bulletins on experimentation in classrooms.
10. More educational conferences in the local school system headed by persons invited by the local staff to discuss specific problems raised by the staff.
11. More emphasis in college and university classes upon the practical problems of the school.

Dent<sup>4</sup> also reported that many teachers indicated that the usual summer school and extension courses were not held in high regard. Some re-

<sup>3</sup> Charles H. Dent, *Connecticut Teachers' Needs for In-service Education*, Doctoral Dissertation, New York University, New York, 1951.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*



sponses branded them as a waste of time; others thought that they interfered with professional growth and development.

This last finding of Dent is not surprising when one considers the fact that the great majority of teachers attend such classes for credit or for the purpose of earning advanced degrees so that they can receive higher salaries. Weber<sup>5</sup> found the same situation among teachers of the twenty states of the North Central Association ten years previously, and he found that there were three basic reasons for it:

1. Absence of appropriate motivation; teachers took courses to receive higher salaries more than to help solve the problems of the schools.
2. Many college professors are more interested in teaching their own specialties than in helping public school teachers solve their own problems.
3. Many teachers who are subject-matter specialists in secondary schools resent any suggestion that changes should be made in the curriculum, in the subject matter, or in the teaching methods and techniques.

At this point it seems very appropriate to tell the story of a teacher who served in a high school in a small Middle Western city.

Miss Dawes (as we shall call her here) was a teacher of history. She had a bachelor's degree from the state university in history and a master's degree in the same field from a well-known, large, private university. Miss Dawes resented the fact that the teachers in the system were studying the curriculum in social studies. She thought, however, that it might be wise to go to summer school to take two courses in education so that she could at least talk the language of the rest of the staff in discussing any changes in the social-science curriculum. When Miss Dawes returned in September, she reported that the two courses she had taken had been a waste of time and a bore and that she could not understand why teachers "put up with them."

As the year progressed, the work of the staff became known among professional people outside the community, and one day a letter was received by the superintendent requesting the school board to pay the travel expenses of a teacher from the system to attend a four weeks' workshop on Curriculum Development in Social Studies. The board approved the action and requested the social-science teachers, the principal, and the superintendent to nominate the teacher who was to be sent.

Now, all the staff members admired and respected Miss Dawes. She was considered to be a fine person, a good teacher, and a leader. Furthermore, she was the only one of the group who had no prior commitments for the period of the workshop. As a result, Miss Dawes was selected, and she accepted with apologies, saying that she had not been too cooperative and perhaps she should not go.

But the teachers said, "Nonsense! We'll help you outline what to look for, what to seek, what to discover to help us with our problem."

<sup>5</sup> C. A. Weber, *Techniques Employed in a Selected Group of Secondary Schools of the North Central Association for Educating Teachers in Service*, Doctoral Dissertation, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., 1943.



Well, Miss Dawes attended the workshop—this time representing the staff, not herself. This time the motive was to bring back something to the staff which would help them solve their problems of curriculum development.

At the workshop, Miss Dawes was selected chairman of the planning committee, chiefly because she was liked by the group and, secondarily, because the group believed she represented a staff of teachers who were alive to the problems of curriculum development.

Upon returning to her community at the completion of the workshop, Miss Dawes appeared in the office of the superintendent in tears to report that she wanted to apologize—she had gone to the workshop under false pretenses; everyone thought she was a typical representative when she herself felt she was not. She had opposed the whole idea of curriculum revision in her own school, she had ridiculed and condemned education courses, and she had been a block to progress in the school. Now, sobbed Miss Dawes, she had seen the light, she had learned that her own prejudices had been blocking her—she had been down on education courses because she was not up on them.

From that day on, Miss Dawes was a different teacher. She soon became the most active of teachers in the school for promoting in-service study, and later she earned a master's degree in education. The point to this true story is that when Miss Dawes attended a workshop at a university to help solve staff problems, she grew; when she went for other purposes, she did not. Our schools can profit from the implications of the story of Miss Dawes, and other teacher-educating agencies can, too.

Nearly all colleges and universities are ready and willing to organize local workshops in schools, to offer extension courses in local communities for the purpose of helping local teachers with their problems, to operate workshops on campuses, to organize short work conferences in local communities and on campus, to arrange curriculum laboratories off campus and on campus, to arrange for reading clinics on campus and off campus, and to supply any kind of service which the local school system desires. The real obstacles are

1. Salary schedules do not "pay off" except in terms of credit acceptable toward advanced degrees.
2. Requests usually come from administrators rather than from teachers; as a result the number "showing up" for the activity is often too small to support it financially.
3. Boards of education are reluctant to underwrite the expense.
4. There is evidence of inadequate planning by the local school regarding time and place.
5. There exists a lack of staff in the teacher-educating agencies.
6. Requests come to the colleges and universities too late for planning to meet them. (For example, this year, after the first semester had started and all staff had been assigned in one university, a request arrived for a workshop involving two staff members, the workshop to take place during October and November. Obviously, such a request had to be turned down. Had



it come in June prior to the first semester, the request could have been granted.)

7. Inappropriate policies of colleges and universities exist concerning allowing "credit" for some of the activities.

The reader should examine the suggestions made in the chapter on salary schedules for a partial solution to this problem. Salary schedules should be reconstructed to reward teachers for the sort of in-service activity which does not carry graduate school credit, and salary schedules should be reconstructed to permit professional agents in the schools to determine what is to be rewarded instead of attaching "all out" significance to college credit which leads to an advanced degree.

### *The Role of Colleges and Universities*

It is a mistake to assume that a sound program of in-service education can be developed without utilizing the services of colleges, universities, and teachers' colleges. Many problems of the school cannot be solved by the mere pulling of the school's own bootstraps. In many cases external help must be relied upon because teachers in the public schools often do not possess the competencies so essential to intelligent attacks upon the problems faced by them in their school situations. Weber<sup>6</sup> found, for example, that while the topics most frequently studied by teachers in the secondary schools of twenty states were Pupil Problems and Needs, Guidance, Curriculum, and Evaluation of Present Practices, these same teachers paid little attention to educational research, the current periodical literature in the areas discussed, the latest developments in psychology of learning, social problems, and economic trends.

Weber<sup>7</sup> concluded that

It appears that there is much "shooting in the dark" since the schools were attempting to solve problems such as developing a guidance program, developing the curriculum, and evaluating school practices without understanding the nature of the learning process; without being conversant with the literature in the field; without being informed in the area of socio-economic forces at work in our society; and without knowledge of educational research. To attempt to develop a curriculum, or a guidance program, or to evaluate practices without these basic knowledges is evidence that many schools are groping and guessing. Intelligent choice does not emerge from accident. To study the problems as many teachers do is as unintelligent as to adhere blindly to traditional practices.

One of the greatest services which colleges, universities, and teachers' colleges can render is to furnish guidance and help to teachers whose learning is out of date or meager in such areas as

<sup>6</sup> Weber, Doctoral Dissertation, pp. 167-170.

<sup>7</sup> Weber, Doctoral Dissertation.



1. The nature of the learning process.
2. Philosophy of American public education.
3. Research in education and in learning.
4. Knowledge of the most important and recent educational literature.
5. Experimentation in learning.
6. Statistics essential to study of educational problems.
7. Latest methods for attacking educational problems.
8. Knowledge of subject matter.
9. Understanding and skill in group processes.
10. More understanding of contemporary community, state, national, and international problems and their educational implications.
11. New developments in such areas as audio-visual aids, teaching of reading, improving human relations, group dynamics, supervision, leadership, guidance, and democratic methods of administration.

The colleges and universities can be utilized for in-service education in three distinct ways:

1. As specialized agents to render service to the schools in the solution of their problems. Such services can be in the following areas.
  - a. Extension courses in which credit is allowed but which are held at the local school and which are designed to help a staff with its own problems. These include workshops, curriculum laboratories, classes in specialized areas such as reading, audio-visual aids, teaching arithmetic, etc.
  - b. Consultative services from college or university staffs to act as source persons in working with teachers on specific problems. Usually such services are not related to college credit.
  - c. Extension courses or lecture series where credit is not granted, but where the focus of attention is upon local problems.
  - d. Clinical services for the study of special cases or problems.
  - e. Specialized services such as testing service, library service, audio-visual aid service, curriculum laboratory service, and others.
2. As specialized agents to render service to individuals in the schools so that such individuals can be of greater service to schools as school workers and as part of a cooperating staff at work on its own problems. To serve this purpose teacher-educating agencies offer the following:
  - a. Graduate programs in education. These programs include programs for the master's degree, a sixth-year program such as a master's plus one, and the doctoral program.
  - b. Consultative services to individual teachers to help them solve their individual problems as teachers.
  - c. Independent study not leading to a degree.
  - d. Graduate study designed to enable teachers to meet certification requirements for more advanced or different certificates.
3. As specialized agents to render service to a community in helping the community solve its educational problems. To serve this purpose colleges and universities offer the following:



- a. Community surveys and studies.
- b. School-building surveys.
- c. Consultative service to community groups.
- d. Consultative service in the form of speakers and lecturers for community groups.
- e. Community workshops.
- f. On-campus group meetings and workshops.
- g. A variety of community services.

The public schools have committed a serious error when they assume that the only institutional service which merits consideration when translated into salary schedules is the second of those described above. By and large, salary schedules reward teachers for earning college credits and college degrees but ignore the growth aspects of participation in activities in which institutional services are given without credit. An intelligent in-service education program will reward teachers for participation in activities which are likely to result in teacher growth regardless of the college credit involved.

However, this does not mean that colleges and universities are blameless. In many situations the institutions themselves put such a heavy premium upon credits, semester hours, and degrees that they have aided and abetted the practice of ignoring other factors in rewarding teachers. Colleges and universities should give more attention to adjusting their service offerings to the needs of the schools.

1. They should provide more laboratory experiences for teachers in service.
2. They should provide more opportunities for experimentation with educational procedures of practical value to teachers in service.
3. They should find new ways of working with teachers in service which differ from courses and conferences.
4. They should find more ways of making noncredit activities of a practical nature available to teachers and communities.
5. They should find new and better ways for rewarding teachers who are doing outstanding work in classrooms.
6. They should find better ways of providing follow-up service for graduates.
7. They should find better ways for meeting the needs of teachers of advanced age.
8. They should find better ways for making professional literature including books, magazines, and monographs available to groups of teachers in schools, in extension courses, and in workshops.
9. They should devise much better methods of dissemination of information about the services available.
10. They should discover more effective methods than lecturing and formal discussion.
11. They should eliminate repetitious courses.
12. They should improve their services to teachers in such areas as studying



the community, making case studies of children, evaluating the school program.

13. They should improve their own public relations activities.
14. They should find better ways of making campus facilities and services available to schools and school staffs.<sup>a</sup>

Teacher-educating institutions which offer advanced programs for teachers in service are usually eager to change their offerings and their programs to meet the needs and demands of teachers who are at work in the public schools. But when the public schools themselves have made little or no effort at cooperative planning to develop in-service education programs which really attack problems growing out of the local school itself, and when public school systems have made little or no effort to devise salary schedules which reward teachers for anything other than years of service in the schools and graduate school credits or degrees, it is unrealistic to expect the teacher-educating agencies to make much progress in reconstructing their offerings.

At a recent meeting of public school superintendents and teachers, the group asserted in discussion that colleges and universities should grant college credit to teachers who participated in work experience outside the public schools, and that colleges and universities should grant college credit for committee work done in the public schools—all on the grounds that these things are important in the growth of teachers and that participation in them should entitle teachers to increases in salaries. Such notions are sheer nonsense, and what is more, assertions of this nature merely indicate that the local schools represented have totally failed to consider the possibility of reconstructing their own salary schedules to take their own beliefs into account. This writer agrees that when work experiences other than teaching, committee work in the schools, and other activities are conducive to teacher growth, participation in them should result in financial rewards to the teachers, but he also is convinced that the rewards are the responsibility of the salary-schedule plan, not of the college or university.

If teachers, administrators, and boards of education will cooperatively develop sound programs for educating teachers in service, they will include activities within the school system which are likely to produce growth of teachers, and they will find appropriate roles for the colleges and universities in providing consultant and teaching services essential to the most rapid and effective improvement of teachers in service. This kind of planning is important, and it is recognized by the teacher-educating institutions. What is more, the latter are very likely to change their offerings for the better as a result of it. Without it, progress in rebuilding the offerings of colleges and universities for teachers in service will be

<sup>a</sup> Dent, *op. cit.*



tediously slow, chiefly because teachers who come to the institutions want credit in activities which can be translated into better salaries, advancement, and improved status in their schools.

In the main, schools of education and teachers' colleges which offer advanced work for teachers in service are chafing at the bit to develop programs which can be enmeshed with organized, well-planned programs in the public schools designed to do a better job for teachers in service.

### *The Role of State Departments of Education*

A third source for educating teachers in service which should be used more by the public schools is the state department of education. The regulatory functions of state departments of education are universally recognized, but many schools are not aware of the fact that state departments of education can be of outstanding service to schools in their programs for educating the staff while on the job.

State departments of education, in addition to their regulatory activities, have leadership functions and operational functions. Their chief leadership functions can be listed under five main headings:

1. Planning.
2. Research.
3. Advising and consulting.
4. Coordinating.
5. Public relations.

It is activity subsumed under the second and third headings which has the greatest significance for the problems of teacher improvement. The state department may stimulate research within the local school system by means of working with local groups in the study of their own problems. It is important to note that this stimulation is most likely to be successful when colleges and universities play an important role, cooperating with local teachers and the representatives from state departments.

The advising and consulting function of state departments of education was established by men like Horace Mann and Henry Barnard more than a century ago. History records their wide use of discussions, conferences, and institutes as effective means for broadening the horizons of teachers. This function was found to be indispensable in providing leadership services which local school authorities could not provide. The situation, of course, has changed today, and we find three prevailing patterns of procedure being utilized by state departments of education.

1. Providing groups of competent individuals drawn from the state as a whole, including members of the staff of the department of education, college



- professors, teachers, administrators, and laymen to work with people in the local school in helping them to solve their problems,
2. Providing experts from the state department to work with local school leaders in attacking problems within the local situation.
  3. Providing experts from the state department to work with individual teachers in devising plans of action for solving their own problems.

Supervision of classroom instruction should be a local responsibility. Direct supervision of this nature should not be done by state departments of education, because it is not in harmony with sound organization and administrative procedure, it is not practicable or feasible when the number of teachers is considered, and it is likely to squander the time of officials in the state department of education. In spite of this, a few state departments still provide direct teacher supervision of local school classroom instruction. It is a vanishing practice.

The Connecticut State Department of Education has made great strides in this area of leadership to local schools, and every year more and more schools are discovering that the state department of education plays a significant role in the process of educating teachers in service. Their activities include consultation services in the following areas:

1. School buildings and grounds.
2. Curriculum development.
3. Elementary education.
4. Health and physical education.
5. Community recreation.
6. Safety, driver education.
7. School lunch programs.
8. Special education.
9. Industrial arts.
10. Citizenship.
11. Girls' vocational courses.
12. Agriculture courses.
13. Homemaking courses.
14. Trade and industrial education services.
15. Legal service.
16. Transportation.
17. Statistics and information.
18. Rehabilitation services.
19. Guidance.
20. Placement of students.
21. School libraries.
22. Business education.
23. Youth labor and employment.
24. Parent education.
25. School nursing service.



26. Speech correction.
27. Hearing correction.
28. Mentally handicapped.
29. Evaluation of school programs.
30. Audio-visual aids.

Certainly public schools in which the entire staff cooperatively plans the program for promoting growth of teachers will utilize maximally the state department of education's consultant services. Such use does not mean that self-controlled activities should be reduced or that the services of the colleges and universities should be neglected. Appropriate use of all three areas is essential.

The research function of the state department of education should be utilized more by local schools. Dr. Joseph Baer, chief of the Bureau of Research and Planning of the State Department of Education in Connecticut, has established the sort of service which should be utilized more by schools. Through his department the leadership is supplied to

1. Conduct state-wide studies of educational programs. Such studies may, and often do, originate with teachers in local school systems.
2. Serve as consultant for studies and investigations carried on by local school systems.
3. Serve as a reference agency to coordinate requests for information so that colleges, universities, and other agencies can be of service to the schools.
4. Provide leadership, when requested, for surveys of local school systems.
5. Carry on statistical studies of such problems as salaries, turnover, promising school practices, and supply of and demand for teachers.
6. Supply consultative service in cooperation with colleges and universities and local school staffs who wish to study their schools.

### *The Role of Teachers' Organizations*

A fourth medium important to any program of educating teachers in service is the use of organizations of teachers. Teachers' organizations are becoming more concerned with the continuous growth of their members. Among those with growing programs of the sort are the NEA and its many affiliated groups, the forty-eight state teachers' associations, the American Childhood Education Association, Society for Curriculum Study, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and the AFT. Most of these organizations have active regional, state, and local branches that reach, in an intimate manner, large memberships. Through their publications, conventions, legislative programs, and research activities, they are endeavoring to develop more competency in teachers. Certainly these organizations can be potent forces for educating teachers in service. Local schools should utilize them more effectively. Unfortunately, some of the activities of these organizations are not worthy of perpetua-



tion or commendation; much needs to be done in many cases to set the houses of some of them in order. The predominance, for example, of energy devoted to improvement of salaries of teachers over energy devoted to encouraging teachers to become better teachers is striking in some teachers' organizations. When the public has its collective fingers crossed on the whole program of public education, teachers' organizations should quadruple their efforts to improve teachers in service while attempting to improve the economic status of teachers. At times, too, one wonders if teachers' organizations are not defeating their own purposes by petty jealousies and sometimes bitter opposition to each other. Perhaps one of the most fruitful means for educating teachers in service would be that of reexamining and reconstructing the professional organizations themselves.<sup>9</sup>

### *The Role of the Community*

The communities in which the schools are located offer excellent opportunities for educating teachers in service. One of the competencies which all teachers should possess, but unfortunately one which many do not have, is the ability to survey and analyze the natural and cultural landscapes of a community and to utilize the data thus discovered and collected in the improvement of the educational program in the schools. After all, one of the most significant tests which can apply to a school is: Has the school changed the community for the better? Has the school made any impact upon improvement of community services, community action, political thinking, quality of local government, housing, sanitary conditions, and many other community activities? Teachers should know much about the relation between the school program and community improvement.

The increasing number of institutions and agencies within the community which are developing programs around certain aspects of child welfare give ample evidence of social recognition of the goals for education. One thing greatly needed is the development of cooperative relationships between school people and those in the community associated with these activities.

Study of such problems as the following, in cooperation with people of the community, will be almost certain to result in teacher growth:

1. Home life in the community.
2. Community attitudes.
3. Community structure.
4. Community organizations.
5. Community government.
6. Industries in the community.

<sup>9</sup> See chapter on Teachers' Organizations.



7. The press.
8. The theaters.
9. Radio and television.
10. Libraries.
11. Churches.
12. Youth-serving agencies.
13. Leisuretime facilities.
14. Service clubs.
15. Health services.
16. Labor organizations.
17. Vocational opportunities.
18. Physical aspects of the community.
19. Ethnic groups.
20. Opportunities for community expansion.

Wise school leadership, sensing the possibilities of community study for educating teachers in service, will use the community as a powerful force for improvement of instruction in the schools. Such leadership will see that there is a well-developed program of community planning in which the professional staff of the schools plays a prominent role. Teachers should recognize, early in their careers, that the community itself is one of the most potent agencies for improvement of teachers in service. Salary schedules should reward teachers for participation in studies of the community.

### *The Role of Business and Industry*

Business and industry offer fertile fields for teachers in their quest for activities which will result in growth in service. Too often teachers withdraw from that section of American life which is primarily concerned with production, sales, and profits even though in this country we live in a society which is overtly devoted to just such activities.

Sitting down with men of industry and business to discuss problems of the school will be enlightening to many teachers. They may discover that what they have so often held as sacred and of paramount importance, namely, the ability to remember facts and information, is considered of secondary importance by those who employ people. Many teachers would be surprised to discover that the development of appropriate attitudes toward work, basic values, and other general patterns of conduct was assigned far greater value by those who manage industry and business than the ability to memorize or to recall facts and information. Understandings of this and similar points of view of business and industry would be of great value to teachers in developing the curriculum of the schools.

Work experience in business and industry would give teachers a new insight into the needs of our people and hence would be very likely to



result in reexamination of the methods, materials, and scope of activities in the schools.

Experience has shown that a small percentage of the graduates of our high schools finish college or university courses. In spite of this, relatively little is being done in our secondary schools for preparing boys and girls to enter the world of work—the high schools are still predominantly directed toward preparing young people for college.

One of the reasons for the lack of progress made by the schools is that teachers, in general, have never rubbed elbows with many people outside the educational family. They attended precollege school for twelve years, associating with teachers; they attended college getting the point of view of professional educators; and they perhaps attended graduate school continuing the process. Not only that, but being engaged in teaching, their associations continue to be with professional educators. Small wonder that many teachers have never acquired attitudes or insights concerning education other than those of the teacher.

The world of work can be just as easily attached to the romance of invention and discovery as can the college program. The world of work is tied up with the struggles of men, the development of language, literature, and the arts. It is mere ignorance that leads to the supposition that connection of art and aesthetic perception with practical experience signifies a lowering of the significance and dignity of intellectual activity, because work is often the fulfillment of a man in his struggle and achievement in the world of things. When schooling is separated from work in the experience of the young, a wall is built around work which renders its importance as almost opaque. Similarly, when the education of teachers is separated from the workaday world of business and industry, to that extent it becomes artificial instead of artistic. Actually, much of our great literature has been related to the world of work, much of our great art has been related to the world of work,<sup>10</sup> a large amount of our music has been related to the world of work, science and mathematics have been developed primarily to serve the world of work, study of economics is directed toward the world of work, and history has been written to show how men developed in the world of work.

Many great artists in the areas of music, painting, and literature have been men and women who were intimate with the world of work, many had experience in the field of work which was complete and unifying. Those who teach our children should be artists, too, and to do so, they too should be more conversant with and understanding of the world of work. The author is not suggesting that teachers should reduce their teaching in the so-called "cultural" areas, rather that teachers, to do their job artistically in these areas, should have experience with the world

<sup>10</sup> Diesel trains, modern car bodies, television, radios.



of work outside the teaching profession. By enlarging their sympathies and horizons of vision, by coming in contact with differences in tastes, manners, and experience, the isolations, gaps, and barriers to artistic teaching are more likely to melt away.

Salary schedules should be so designed that significant contacts with business and industry would be rewarding to the teachers in the schools.

### *The Role of Labor*

Labor organizations of all kinds offer another untapped source for educating teachers in service. Just as it is important for teachers to understand the world of work from the point of view of the managers of business and industry, it is likewise important for teachers to understand the world of work from the point of view of those who "labor in the vineyard."

It makes relatively as much difference to the laborer as to the industrialist whether his home is comfortable to him, whether he can buy good food or poor food, whether he can live an active part in his community. Sagacious and wise employers realize this and are making every effort to take it into account.

Unfortunately, however, teachers know far too little about the problems, hopes, aspirations, and thinking of those who are included in the labor forces of our country. The children of the plumber tend to live in a plumber's world; the children of the coal miner tend to live in the miner's world; the children of the prize fighter tend to live in the prize fighter's world. The opinion among laborers that Jimmie Jones has done well as a truck driver is more important to Jimmie than all the opinions of school teachers combined.

Wise employers spend much time studying the interests, needs, problems, attitudes, beliefs, and activities of their employees. Such employers report, uniformly, that this sort of study is profitable. Can we expect teachers who are growing to do less? Teachers have the children of laborers in their classrooms in far greater numbers than those of any other group. Should teachers try to make such children feel that they are failures because they are the children of laborers rather than the children of professional men or expert tradesmen or industrial managers?

If teachers are to be actively engaged in activities which stimulate growth in service, they cannot neglect the association with people who work for others in factories, on farms, and in business establishments.

In-service education of teachers is essential. The most promising techniques for educating teachers in service are those which give teachers a large part in the shaping of school policy, which give teachers a large part in planning and conducting faculty meetings, which encourage cooperative attacks on the problems facing the school, which provide



for situations in which teachers, parents, pupils, board members, and people of the community work together in attacking problems arising in the school.

The least promising techniques are those which are supervisory, inspectorial, authoritarian, and administrator-dominated.

The success of in-service education programs is largely a function of the degree of democratic participation of all members of the school community rather than of the size of the school, the years of service of teachers, the subjects taught by teachers, the extracurricular assignments of teachers, the fact that a teacher teaches in her home town, or the amount of graduate credit earned.<sup>11</sup>

School administrators should conceive of their function as that of stimulating teachers to make inquiry, to devise plans of action, to evaluate procedures, and to participate actively in the determination of policies rather than that of providing the final authority which directly or indirectly forms and controls ideas, actions, evaluation, and policies.

Teachers should make every effort to participate in situations involving thinking in groups. They should take an active part in discussion and should energetically contribute to leadership. They should be concerned primarily with the problems of the school rather than with the limited problems of their own class-rooms or own departments. Unless teachers are willing to assume the responsibilities incident to cooperative planning, outworn authoritarian practices will continue to dominate the efforts of schools to promote growth of teachers in service. Teachers, when selected to serve on committees, should pursue their assignments with energy and seriousness of purpose. Staff members in study groups, forums, panels, group interviews, and formal discussion groups should make every effort to help the group in weighing data and in making value judgments.

Teacher-educating institutions at the undergraduate and graduate levels should give much greater attention to training teachers and administrators how to plan cooperatively. They should reexamine their own procedures for eliminating those practices which put a premium upon traditional and individualistic techniques of attacking educational problems.

Boards of education should reexamine their salary schedules for the purpose of devising new approaches to the salary problem which will reward teachers for growth in service rather than for mere credits earned or degrees earned.<sup>12</sup>

In every area, cooperative practices should be introduced to replace

<sup>11</sup> C. A. Weber, "Reactions of Teachers to In-service Education in Their Schools," *School Review*, 51:234-240 (April, 1943).

<sup>12</sup> See the chapter on Salary Schedules for a suggestion regarding a new approach.



imposed procedures; learning by teachers through experience in educational planning should replace direction by administrators and orders from boards of education. Active concern for, and study of, ends and values which make direct, vital appeal to teachers should be substituted for college credit programs which are sought because they are "legal tender" in getting salary increases.

Boards of education, in evaluating the worth of the superintendent, should seek affirmative answers to the following questions:

1. Does he bring about cooperative thinking and planning on the part of teachers?
2. Does he substitute leadership for authority?
3. Does he conceive of his task as being coordinator of the ideas and procedures initiated by the staff through cooperative effort.
4. Are the proposals made by the superintendent the result of consensus of the best judgment of the professional personnel.

### SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of the activities in your school system which might be considered as promoting growth of teachers in service.
2. How many of the activities described in question 1 were initiated by the administrative leaders? How many by the teachers?
3. Make a list of the most promising techniques for educating teachers in service which have been used in your school.
4. How can you tell whether an in-service activity really produces teacher growth?
5. What are the chief obstacles to teacher growth?
6. What are the purposes of the in-service education program in your school?

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## CHAPTER 6 *Evaluating the Services of Teachers*

The American public is concerned about the program in the public schools. Speakers on the public platforms, writers in some magazines, news reporters, radio speakers, and some members of the teaching profession have joined in complaining about the lack of purpose in public schools, about the nature of our goals, about our current practices to achieve our goals, about our lack of thoroughness, about the failure of graduates to command the respect of the people in the community, and about the poor results of schooling in terms of the acquisition of the basic skills of communication, knowledge of the facts of our own history, and an understanding of the virtues of what we call "free enterprise."

It is the honest belief of the writer that most of these complaints are based upon inadequate information, upon ulterior motives which are cleverly hidden from public inspection, upon statements by irresponsible opponents of public education whose thinking is either deliberately designed to undermine the whole program of publicly supported free education or whose thinking is based upon confused, vague, erroneous, and ill-defined assumptions.

But there is one very disconcerting aspect of these complaints, namely, that much of our program for educating the youth of America suffers because we are not at all sure of what we expect and require of teachers. Unfortunately, the profession seems not too effective in stilling the unrest of the people. There is a notion among many that we, the educators, have matters wrong and that the public will have to take steps to rescue the schools from our influence.<sup>1</sup> Such recent events as those in Pasadena, Battle Creek, and Arkansas give us real cause for concern. This critical attitude of the people should put us on our mettle and cause us to re-

<sup>1</sup> Karl Stecher, *Education for the American People*, p. 180, Mason Press, Macon, Ga., 1943.



examine our thinking, our basic commitments, our methods, and our programs for the evaluation of the services of teachers.

Many of our own profession still seek to measure all learning in terms of the mastery of facts, information, and skills, omitting all other considerations. Many of our children come from homes in which parents are apt to measure learning in just such terms. As long as we measure learning in this way, everyone seems to know what to expect. Certain facts, information, and skills are assumed to be important and significant; children are admonished to learn these facts, acquire the important information, and master the approved skills. The pupils then seem to know what to do, the teachers appear to know what to do, and the parents feel that they know what to expect. We then give tests, preferably standardized tests, to determine whether or not the facts have been memorized, the information learned, and the skills acquired. The child measures up well, average, or poor (or in between), and the people, children, and teachers believe they know what A, B, C, D, F, or 94 per cent or 71 per cent mean—they think they mean achievement in terms of facts, information, and skills learned, memorized, or acquired.

But many people in the profession and an increasingly large number of laymen are coming to realize that the mere acquisition of facts and information or mastery of skills is no guarantee that the learner is well equipped to meet the problems of our time.<sup>2</sup>

If we pause briefly to examine the state of affairs in the world today, we find that everywhere the greatest of all needs is the ability to decide upon appropriate plans of action to solve problems at hand. The world today demands above all else the basic ability to *marshal* and *mobilize* the facts, the thinking of the past, and the basic skills of communication and exploration for the purpose of deciding what should be done today.

A democratic society like our own is founded upon the basic assumption that the people are sovereign and that the people can decide, by use of facts and information, upon appropriate plans of action. In spite of this, the average American realizes that we are more creatures of habit and emotion than we are of intelligence.<sup>3</sup> In spite of all that we have done in our attempt to teach facts, information, and skills, large numbers of the graduates of our schools are left high and dry in terms of their ability to marshal facts and information for the purpose of intelligently deciding upon a course of action.

Actually, what we often proudly call a "school system" is really a patchwork, too often a patchwork which reveals little pattern. We have hundreds of courses, many things to memorize, we pay too much atten-

<sup>2</sup> There is a growing amount of literature not written by professional educators, indicating this trend.

<sup>3</sup> Witness the 1952 presidential-election campaign.



tion to useless information, we often work without purpose, and we frequently work in confusion. Someone has even suggested that instead of a school system, we have schools adrift.

As a result, too many of our young people are coming out of our schools without knowing how to marshal facts and information for deciding upon a course of action, without learning much of anything about the skills essential to coming to common agreement with others, without adequate clues to the situations in which they are to live, and at loss intellectually, morally, and vocationally.

Thus people in all walks of life are beginning to realize that we who are engaged in public education must follow a new outline of procedure if we are to educate citizens who know how to make the kinds of judgment which will save the people from destruction. The people hear and read about "Hell" bombs destroying whole cities, about atomic cannon to destroy men at wholesale rates, about fission gas laying waste a countryside, about wholesale distribution of some deadly disease germ, about people sitting up all twenty-four hours of the day to spot the arrival of airplanes which might carry such wholesale death-dealing devices, and they shudder as we ask questions like these: Is it vital to be able to diagram a sentence? Is it crucial to know the date of Paul Revere's ride? Is it significant that our children are memorizing facts, acquiring information, learning skills without learning how to mobilize or marshal them for the purpose of solving the awful problems ahead? And then the people yearn for a program of public education which will yield citizens who know how to use intelligence to decide upon a course of action. How long will it be before the people demand it?

When the people become convinced that we who are charged with educating youth are actually educating them directly, not indirectly (not by accident), to solve problems, to make decisions, to determine a course of action, to determine what should be done—then the people are likely to cease having their collective fingers crossed concerning the public schools which they support with their money and which we, the teachers, operate without understanding and ability.

But frankly, and unfortunately, great masses of our people feel deeply that teachers are playing with puny and ineffective procedures, dickering over whether to require one year or two years of mathematics, whether to insist upon study of a foreign language, whether marks would be in letters or percentages, or whether teachers should get raises for having earned a Master of Arts degree. And what is even more serious, they are asking, "Education for what—to become, in the future, mere splatter from atomic destruction?" Thus the people secretly feel that too often we teachers are playing with outmoded games of schooling while the world



smokes and smolders in atomic fires which could easily blow us all into oblivion.

We must put our house in order so that the people will know full well that we have turned our energies to teaching their children, our children, from the tender age of the kindergarden through the graduate schools of our publicly supported institutions of higher learning, in the techniques and understandings needed for arriving at common courses of action in the interest of the public good.

How can we put our house in order?

Certainly, the obligation is clear. One plan of action has great promise. We can, of our own free will and accord, by our own efforts, evaluate the services of teachers in the interest of the public good, relegating our own immediate interests to a position of secondary importance. If we do less, the people will do it for us and everyone will lose. The first alternative is the only intelligent one.

There are many teachers who rebel at the mere mention of merit ratings or evaluation programs which have their origin in sources external to themselves. As has been pointed out earlier, this is the reaction which every psychologist would expect because it is a direct challenge to complacency and security. But if the thinking presented thus far in this chapter has a modicum of validity, we have no alternative other than to make every effort to evaluate ourselves. Thus, in self-defense, as well as in the interest of the public good, teachers should cooperatively engage in a continuous program of evaluation of teaching and of teachers.

While the writer was a superintendent of schools in an Illinois city, the legislature of the state passed two laws which were destined to have desirable effects upon teachers. The first law was a teacher-tenure law which guaranteed that if a teacher was employed more than two years in a school district, the teacher was guaranteed by law that he had continued contractual status to age sixty-five, provided that the laws of the state and the reasonable rules of the board of education were not violated. The second law authorized boards of education to require that teachers furnish boards with evidence that they were physically fit to teach, and it authorized boards of education to pass regulations requiring teachers to furnish evidence that they had grown in service.

Thus teachers were granted tenure by law, but boards of education were empowered to make such tenure contingent upon being physically fit to teach and upon growing in service.

As soon as these two bills became law, the writer called his staff and board together to request them to come to some agreement concerning who should establish criteria for (1) determining whether a teacher was



physically fit to teach, and (2) determining whether a teacher had grown in service. The first aspect of the problem was quickly solved by agreement that a statement from a competent physician would be adequate provided that the board could, if it chose, select the physician who would make final decisions.

The second aspect of the problem was quite a different matter. Teachers felt that the board of education was not the appropriate agency to determine whether a teacher had grown in service. In this the board was in essential agreement. The superintendent stated that he did not feel that he alone or that he and the principals should be held responsible for such a decision.

The teachers, realizing the possibility that persons external to themselves might easily have the power of vitiating their rights to tenure under the law, made the suggestion that the entire professional staff of the schools go to work on the problem, submit criteria to the board of education for examination, and jointly as professional staff, administrators, and board members come to common agreement on principles and policies essential to making decisions regarding individual teachers as to their growth in service. Some of the activities involved in this have been reported elsewhere in the literature.<sup>4</sup>

The net result of the cooperative efforts of teachers, administrators, and the board of education was development of a point system under which a teacher who earned at least 100 points from participation in activities which all concerned believed would be conducive to growth of teachers was accepted as being satisfactory evidence of growth in service.

The details of the point system devised are not important here—what is important is that the teachers themselves engaged in the development of the criteria.

When the task was completed, teachers began new efforts to grow in service, they engaged in the activities with spirit and enthusiasm, they fairly bustled with activity, and they developed programs in the school which no administrator or board or people could have forced upon the teachers. This experience caught the superintendent so unawares that for six months he found himself trying to catch up with the professional staff.

So it can be with a program of evaluating the services of teachers. If teachers can only see that the best reasonable alternatives to merit ratings and evaluations from external sources are cooperative plans of action by the professional staff to evaluate the services of teachers, they can and will improve teaching beyond their own dreams, and beyond the hopes and expectations of administrators and boards of education.

<sup>4</sup> C. A. Weber, "Shaping a Policy in a School Situation," *Teachers College Record* 46(4):229-235 (January, 1945).



What steps should be taken to initiate a program of evaluation of the services of teachers? Some answers in the form of suggestions follow, but only teachers working cooperatively with administrators and boards of education can give satisfying and adequate answers. It must be their responsibility if lasting results are to be achieved; it must be with their initiative if it is to contribute to the mental health of teachers; it must embrace their own inquiry, experimentation, and proposals if it is to contribute to use of intelligence of teachers; it must include all those concerned if it is to be conducive to mutuality; and it must stem from their own sincere efforts to improve the educational program if it is to be creative.

The first step is that of bringing teachers together for the purpose of becoming fully aware of the need for some type of evaluation of the services of teachers. This step usually requires time because no group of teachers is likely to recognize the real need without time for meditation, reflection, and deliberation. It may be that the board of education, acting as the official body representing the people of the community, should officially request the professional staff to study the problem of evaluation of teacher services; it may be that the superintendent and the other administrative officers of the school system should reveal to the teachers that the board of education expects them to make such evaluations and that they prefer to have teacher participation in such a program; perhaps the local teachers' organization will take the initial step of requesting teachers to evaluate the services of teachers; perhaps the pressures of talk about merit-rating systems will supply the needed spark to get teachers going; or it may be that the bringing in of professional personnel from colleges, universities, and state departments of education may be the most fruitful means of causing teachers to recognize the need for some kind of program of evaluation of teaching services.

Unless teachers themselves are motivated to evaluate their own services, they can never be expected to do so. This is a fundamental principle of learning. All schools of psychology seem to be in agreement that motivation is the *sine qua non* of learning. As McConnell puts it, "psychologists agree that the learner must be motivated or learning is not likely to occur."<sup>6</sup>

It is a mistake to confuse motivation with the giving of orders or directives. If the status leaders in a school system should tell the teachers in the schools that they are expected to engage in a program designed to evaluate teaching services, the efforts are very likely to be of little consequence because the very telling may stimulate emotional reactions

<sup>6</sup> T. R. McConnell, "Synthesis of Learning Theories," *Psychology of Learning*, 41st Yearbook of the Society for the Study of Education, Part II, pp. 256-286, Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill., 1942.



which work contrary to the desired end. It is important to remember that just as many children learn to dislike great literature as they pursue assignments or when we require them to read it; teachers may do the same about evaluating teaching services. Dewey has written:

Perhaps the greatest of all pedagogical fallacies is the notion that a person learns only the particular things he is studying at the time. Collateral learning in the way of formation of enduring attitudes, of likes and dislikes, may be and often is much more important than the spelling lesson or lesson in geography or history that is learned.\*

This statement of Dewey's could be paraphrased as follows: Perhaps the greatest of all tactical errors of professional status leaders is the notion that teachers will solve their own problems as a result of being told to do so. Collateral learning in the way of formation of negative attitudes toward the activity may be and usually is more important than the outcomes achieved by such imposed activity.

When teachers themselves have recognized the need for plans of action for intelligent evaluation of teaching services, they will express a great variety of convictions and beliefs concerning the nature of such plans. Some "Mr. Milk Toast" leaders in education will shrink from the situation at this point; they will give up in fear and trembling when they hear the exclamations and assertions of teachers whose beliefs and notions are at cross-purposes to their own; they will shudder at the chaos and confusion which is readily observable; they may quit. But public education needs more than men of the caliber of Mr. Milk Toast; public education needs leaders who know how to utilize the nascent potential energy of live teachers in disagreement and confusion. Situations of this nature require elements of leadership which are not ordinary. Positive leadership may be required at this stage because the group is inexperienced and because the group cannot foresee the consequences of their initial floundering.

Leadership in such situations will begin with the process of recognizing all the differences in beliefs and commitments as essential facts in the situation. Instead of argument between leaders and members of the group, or between members and members, there will take place a systematic cataloguing of the attitudes, beliefs, and commitments of the members of the group without discussion, without argument, without evaluation of any kind. Every statement of belief or commitment will be recognized as an existing one to be considered at a later time and will be listed with all others as of equal importance and validity. It is the function of the leader in such a situation to cause members of the group to be willing to state their beliefs and attitudes without fear of argument.

\* Quoted by permission, from John Dewey, *Experience in Education*, p. 49, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1938.



contradiction, derisive comment, ridicule, or objection. Only when members of a group feel that their notions or beliefs are to be given recognition as existing realities in the situation are the hidden attitudes and commitments likely to be brought to the surface.

The process of bringing all the attitudes, beliefs, and commitments of a group to the surface so that they can be examined objectively is a crucial one. It may involve smaller group meetings; it may involve invitation to submit unsigned written statements; it may involve personal conferences.

Failure to take this first step of giving status to differences in beliefs is one of the saddest errors in judgmental method because if the step is not taken and all the differences are not catalogued for later scrutiny, the hidden reactions of individuals in the situation are most likely to undermine any program of action designed to solve the problem. Leaders must guarantee that the individual teacher in the school will be encouraged to make clear his position on the matter at hand without the slightest fear of even a whimsical smile indicating such attitudes as, "We'll put it in the hopper, but it's a silly notion."

Once the attitudes, beliefs, and commitments of teachers concerning evaluation of teaching services have been catalogued, the entire list should be submitted to the teachers for the purpose of synthesizing the beliefs into an orderly statement of the functions of the staff as a whole. The teachers themselves should be requested to bring into bold relief the fundamental differences which exist, not on a personal basis, but in terms of the attitudes, beliefs, and commitments which can be examined impersonally.

The study of existing conditions is basic to intelligent solution of problems. By a study of the many opinions and points of view of the professional staff, the stage is set for elimination of conflict and confusion through deliberation and discussion. By understanding the basic differences in belief, the task of shaping a policy becomes easier.

The next important step to be taken is to utilize the statements as they have been synthesized for the purpose of coming to common agreement on general normatives which should govern teaching. Some of these may develop in something like the following form:

1. Teachers should grow in service; they should never be satisfied with being static.
2. Teachers should become more and more competent in the general field of classroom management.
3. Teachers should become more and more proficient in the area of organizing the learning situation so that learning really takes place.
4. Teachers should be able to square their procedures with a working knowledge and understanding of the learning process.



5. Teachers should be able to measure the learning of children.
6. Teachers should be engaged in activities which are designed to achieve purposes and goals acceptable to the community as well as to the professional staff.
7. Teachers should be able to group children in such a way as to result in the maximum amount of learning by children.
8. Teachers should be proficient in participating in group-thinking situations and in teaching children to contribute leadership to such situations.
9. Teachers should be proficient in analyzing the community for the purpose of using their findings in the improvement of the educational program.
10. Teachers should be proficient in helping children to analyze situations and in developing plans of action to solve problems.
11. Teachers should be proficient in the area of discovery of effective learning principles and techniques.
12. Teachers should be proficient in the observance of individual children and in marshaling and mobilizing the data into meaningful plans of action for improvement of guidance and learning.
13. Teachers should be prepared to interpret the educational program to the people of the community.
14. Teachers should be proficient in the act of evaluating the educational program, the achievements of children, the learning experiences of children, and the effects of the schools' programs upon the community.
15. Teachers should be proficient in enlisting the efforts and interests of learners in evaluating educational programs and individual outcomes.
16. Teachers should be proficient in discovery of methods for engendering growth of teachers in service.

After a group of teachers has synthesized its beliefs into a series of general normatives such as those suggested above, the next move is to come to agreement concerning observable behavior which experimental evidence supports as having "warranted assertibility"<sup>7</sup> of value. For example, one group of teachers, studying the problem of in-service education, came to the conclusion that participation in the following activities was very likely to produce growth in service.<sup>8</sup>

1. Attending graduate schools for the purpose of studying problems arising out of the school situation.
2. Attending graduate schools for the purpose of acquainting themselves with new understandings of such problems as curriculum development, learning, research techniques, measurement, guidance, and others.
3. Holding personal conferences with pupils.
4. Holding personal conferences with parents.
5. Holding personal conferences with parents and pupils.

<sup>7</sup> A term frequently used by Dewey meaning that the odds are great enough to assert that it is valuable.

<sup>8</sup> C. A. Weber, "Shaping a Policy in a School Situation," *Teachers College Record*, 46(4):233 (January, 1945).



6. Engaging in an organized program of evaluation of present school practices.
7. Participation of an active nature in staff committee work.
8. Reading professional magazines and books.
9. Engaging in research within the school.
10. Making community surveys and participating in community affairs.

Just as the teachers in the situation agreed upon activities of teachers which probably would be very conducive to growth in service, so teachers who have agreed upon competencies which teachers should possess can enumerate activities which, if engaged in, are likely to indicate whether or not a teacher is developing the proficiencies agreed upon.

A third important step to take is the determination of who is to decide whether a teacher participates. Such questions as the following should be answered by the staff itself, not by the status leaders or by the board of education:

1. Are the needs of all teachers the same?
2. Does participation in any of the activities ensure that anyone is justified in stating that a teacher is effective or ineffective?
3. How can we tell whether participation in the activities we list contributes to becoming or being a better teacher?
4. Who is to decide?
5. Should teachers pry into the work of other teachers?
6. Should principals and superintendents pry into the work of teachers?
7. Should boards of education have any part in checking the activities of teachers?
8. Should parents have any part in checking the activities engaged in by the teachers?
9. Should taxpayers who are neither parents or board members participate?
10. Should children have any part?

Actually, it will be found that no dependable policy is likely to be developed without public consent, at least as expressed by the board of education. To be successful a policy must enjoy common acceptance, which is active but uncoerced, by all persons concerned with the policy and its outcomes.

Wiles<sup>9</sup> has offered some very sound suggestions for developing the power of a group of teachers in the solution of their problems.

1. In pre-planning, spend time thinking of how the group can attack problems, not on ways to influence the group to accept a pre-conceived solution.
2. Chief questions in staff planning should be: What is the job? How can it be done better?

<sup>9</sup> Kimball Wiles, *Supervision for Better Schools*, pp. 148-149, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1950.



3. Let the staff know that solutions proposed by the official leader are possible courses of action, not official rulings.
4. Use group decisions as official rulings and statements of policy.
5. Place major attention on coordinating group thinking and activities.
6. Help the staff to locate and utilize the various types of authority present among its membership.
7. Share with the staff all the responsibility and authority delegated to the official leader.
8. Let the group know the boundaries of its authority and its relationships to other groups.
9. Define the functions of the group and any sub-groups.
10. Provide time for thinking together.
11. Let the staff know the procedure that is being used.
12. Keep the procedure flexible and subject to change by the group.
13. Begin group work on a problem of the staff.
14. Stress faculty discussions as the place where ideas can be advanced and tested without fear of embarrassment.
15. Emphasize "What is right" rather than "Who is right" in staff discussions.
16. Work for consensus rather than majority on action to be taken.
17. Abolish the absolute veto.
18. Be definite on what, how, when, and who in making group decisions.
19. Take action on some problem early in group work.
20. Help members to study group techniques and ways of improving procedures.
21. As a group becomes more mature, assume a coordinating, resource-person role.

People who are informed concerning the process of teacher rating assert that any system of merit rating devised by agents external to those who actually engage in the teaching process has extremely doubtful validity and does more harm than good. Teachers are usually very antagonistic to so-called "merit ratings" for two reasons: (1) research does not support their value, and (2) teachers realize that rating plans destroy creative teaching.

It is insufficient, however, for one who is concerned with the problem of evaluating teachers' services to stop with the mere assertion that teacher-rating plans are unsatisfactory and dangerous. An alternative must be offered, and the best alternative is that of devising cooperative procedures that will enable professional workers, laymen, boards of education, and even pupils to participate in the evaluation of teaching services.

The following suggestions are offered, not as procedures which should be adopted because they are of inherent worth or because someone in authority has decreed them as valuable. They are offered merely as points of departure, as catalytic agents which may stimulate teachers



and administrators to discover and devise techniques which meet the conditions of their particular situations.

1. Encourage self-evaluation by teachers and their classes.
2. Develop, cooperatively, a self-evaluation check list that can be used by individual teachers.
3. Develop, cooperatively, evaluation check lists that can be used by pupils for evaluating teaching.
4. Hold faculty meetings to discuss the results of use of check lists.
5. Develop, cooperatively, check lists which can be used by parents for evaluation of teachers.
6. Develop, cooperatively, plans for intervisitation—where teachers visit one another at work.
7. Encourage pupil-teacher planning which includes evaluation of the experience.
8. Provide opportunities for teachers to offer suggestions to other teachers.
9. Provide means for inviting principals, superintendents, board members, parents, and others into the classroom to see actual classroom work being done.
10. Provide opportunities for students or pupils to evaluate teachers by dropping unsigned statements in suggestion boxes.
11. Provide statistically sound means of measuring growth of pupils who are being guided by teachers.
12. Use the help of teachers in the selection of new personnel.
13. Use wire or tape recordings of classroom work as a means for making it possible for teachers to observe themselves.
14. Cooperatively develop evaluative instruments to be used in measuring growth of children toward goals which have been previously recognized by teachers.
15. Provide opportunities for experimentation with classroom procedures and techniques, and keep all teachers informed of the results.
16. Encourage teachers to meet with and plan with parents concerning the curriculum in the schools.
17. Use faculty meetings to discuss evaluation of classroom procedures which teachers, parents, and others have found valuable.
18. Use departmental meetings to discuss classroom procedures which teachers have found to be valuable.
19. Examine research in the field of evaluation of learning experiences, and develop local research projects suggested by such examination.

Troyer and Pace<sup>10</sup> reported that when teachers engaged in a co-operative program of evaluation of teaching services, the teachers themselves developed a spirit of good will toward evaluation and growth which was conducive to forthright self-evaluation, evaluation became a continuously ongoing activity which manifested itself in improved

<sup>10</sup> Maurice E. Troyer and C. Robert Pace, *Evaluation in Teacher Education*, p. 301, American Council on Education, Washington, 1944.



learning by pupils, and teachers developed keen desires to become better teachers. These reporters also found that

Evaluation was an activity teachers did with others; not something others did to teachers. When such cooperative relationships obtained, teachers were free to face weaknesses and to experiment. And second, in each description the importance of beginning with problems and needs locally felt was evident. Evaluation was most helpful in stimulating teacher growth when it focused on problems about which the teachers were personally concerned—their effectiveness in class, their relationships with pupils, their own programs, their part in the life of the school and community. Teachers grew in effectiveness as they participated fully and freely in attacks on such problems.<sup>11</sup>

Teachers, board members, and parents are likely to find that the use of established self-evaluative instruments such as the Purdue Teachers Examination may be useful.<sup>12</sup> This instrument has been applied to a large number of teachers, and the investigators report that the results indicate an apparent need for teachers to have a better understanding of mental hygiene and related psychological knowledge. Apparently many teachers are not aware of the fact that many classroom behavior problems have their beginnings in tensions that result from attempts to establish goals beyond the reach of the learner. Teachers who are interested in securing some measure of teachers' knowledge of mental-hygiene principles and their attitudes toward the problems of children could use the Purdue Teachers Examination to good advantage. If a staff elects to use this instrument, it is advisable that the entire faculty make an intensive study of the manual which accompanies the instrument, because the manual is a report of the research underlying the development of the instrument, and it contains an excellent discussion of validation and implications.

When one considers that research appears to indicate that difficulties in dealing with pupils in the classroom, sometimes referred to as "discipline," is the chief cause of separation of teachers from school systems, the use of the materials in *How I Teach* becomes even more significant. The reader should be reminded, however, that teachers, not top administrative agents or boards of education, should make the decision regarding the use of such evaluative devices.

Another instrument that has promise in cooperative evaluation of teaching is the National Teacher Examinations.<sup>13</sup> The National Teacher

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 305. Quoted by permission.

<sup>12</sup> I. B. Kelly and J. K. Perkins, *Purdue Teachers Examination; How I Teach*, Educational Test Bureau, Educational Publishers, Inc., Minneapolis, Minn., 1942.

<sup>13</sup> *National Teacher Examinations*, Bulletin of Information, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J. (These tests cannot be administered by individuals. Boards of education, certain colleges and universities, and regular centers may administer the tests. Scoring is done at a central office.)



Examinations are prepared and administered annually by the Educational Testing Service. The examinations consist of two parts. Part I, the common examination for all teachers, is designed to measure the understanding of the teacher in these areas: education as a social institution, child development and educational psychology, guidance, measurement in education, general principles and methods of teaching, history, literature, fine arts, science, mathematics, English expression and non-verbal reasoning. Part II, the optional examinations, offers opportunities for the teacher to be examined in the following areas: education in the elementary school, biological sciences, English language and literature, industrial-arts education, mathematics, physical sciences, social studies, French, and Spanish.

Each teacher who takes the National Teacher Examinations receives directly from the Educational Testing Service a report of his scores. No report will be sent to any other person or agency unless the Educational Testing Service is authorized by the teacher taking the examinations to do so. The teacher may obtain a graphic picture of his performance on the examinations.

The examinations consist of a battery of tests designed to measure the professional background, mental ability, and general cultural knowledge of teachers. School faculties desiring to use the National Teacher Examinations should write the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J. and request the Bulletin of Information, or they may get the information from state universities, schools of education, and similar agencies.

The National Teacher Examinations are not designed to rate teachers as teachers, nor are they an instrument which should be used to discover whether a teacher is an effective teacher. Their greatest value is likely to be to the individual teacher in self-appraisal of basic understandings of the job to be done.

School systems in many localities are requiring all applicants to submit their records on the National Teacher Examinations as part of their application for positions. Any teacher desiring to take the examination is required to file with the Educational Testing Service a formal application blank for the examination and to pay an examination fee which varies, for teachers in service, from \$5.50 to \$12, depending upon the number of areas of Part II in which the teacher desires to be examined.

Teachers should understand that in conducting the examinations, the Educational Testing Service acts simply as a service agency to obtain information about the teacher for use as directed by the teacher. There are no passing or failing grades or marks assigned; on the contrary, the examinations are designed to show to the teacher his relative strengths and weaknesses as measured by the instrument.

If the teachers in a school system would take the time to study the



potentialities of using the National Teachers Examinations for self-evaluation and if they would cooperatively devise plans of action for the use of the results of such tests, it is very probable that improvement in teaching services in the school would result. Furthermore, by systematically using the instrument at periodic intervals, say, once every three years, teachers could discover whether the staff as a whole, and individuals in particular, had grown in their understandings of the problems upon which the National Teacher Examinations focus their attention. For example, if in 1952 the average percentile rank of all teachers in a given school system on the common examination was 72, and in 1955 the average percentile rank of all teachers in the same school system who had previously taken the examination was 81, the faculty of the school would be justified in assuming that teachers had grown in service in so far as their professional information and general culture were concerned. Similarly, teachers taking the mathematics section who showed a gain from the 73d percentile to the 85th percentile in a three-year period could feel that they had grown in their general knowledge of mathematics. Teachers, working together, could develop some very interesting and profitable studies of teacher growth which would be satisfying to them and which could be effectively used in the interpretation of the program of the school to the people.

Not only could the teachers use such instruments as the Purdue *How I Teach* and the National Teacher Examinations as part of their cooperative evaluation program, but also they could devise their own instruments for cooperative evaluation. To do this intelligently, however, it will be necessary for most teachers to know far more than they now know about (1) construction of evaluative instruments, (2) tests and measurements, (3) theory of error, and (4) statistics in education.

Unfortunately most teachers have done very little work in any one of these areas, and even fewer have extensive training in all four. If intelligence is to play a part in the solution of personnel problems, it is absolutely essential that all teachers and administrators have adequate and appropriate professional education in the areas of measurement and evaluation.

One of the chief reasons for the absence of self-evaluative procedures in our schools is the appalling ignorance of teachers concerning construction of evaluative instruments, tests and measurement, theory of error, and statistics essential to handling data. Milton Fairchild<sup>14</sup> listed six steps essential to intelligent study of problems:

1. Gather data.
2. Classify and organize data.

<sup>14</sup> Milton Fairchild, *The Scientific Method*, Character Education Institute, National Capitol Press, Washington, 1926.



3. Generalize.
4. Verify generalizations.
5. Report findings to others competent to evaluate.
6. Announce the results.

Actually, most teachers in the public schools do not know how to perform any of the six activities suggested by Fairchild. Teachers in the elementary schools who are engaged in teaching children the process of multiplication quickly recognize that the ability to add is essential and that children who cannot add find it almost impossible to multiply. Yet when it comes to attempting to solve their own problems, these same teachers forget that a knowledge of research methods is just as essential to solution of their problems as is a knowledge of addition to those who would learn to multiply.

It is a sad commentary on our profession that the great majority of teachers who seek master's degrees assiduously avoid the study of statistical method, tests and measurements, and the development of evaluative instruments. Somehow teachers must be brought to realize that their own ignorance of these skills is one of the chief reasons why people outside the schools have resorted to merit ratings. Unless teachers can scientifically, intelligently, and cooperatively devise their own evaluative techniques, they can expect external sources to do it for them.

Again, the fault often lies in ourselves, not in our stars, that we are underlings.

Some school systems have found that the use of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory<sup>15</sup> has been very useful in cooperative efforts at evaluation of teaching services. Investigations carried on by the authors of the instrument seem to indicate that the attitudes of teachers toward children and schoolwork can be measured with high reliability, and that the attitudes of teachers are significantly correlated with teacher-pupil relations as they exist in the classroom. The instrument referred to was developed for the purpose of measuring those attitudes which seemed to be very significant in terms of getting along with children in the classroom. Since the general public is usually considerably concerned over teacher-pupil rapport, and since research seems to indicate that absence of appropriate rapport between teachers and pupils is one of the chief causes assigned for failure of teachers, it is quite appropriate that teachers should seriously consider use of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory as an instrument of considerable worth in a program of cooperative evaluation.

As with the National Teacher Examinations, the teachers in the school

<sup>15</sup> W. W. Cook, C. H. Leeds, and Robert Callis, *Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory*, The Psychological Corporation, New York.



should make a serious and sincere effort to read and study the manual thoroughly before using the inventory.

The Minnesota inventory is based upon the assumptions that pupils should like the teacher and enjoy schoolwork; that the teacher should like children and enjoy teaching; that situations requiring disciplinary actions should rarely occur; that teachers and pupils should work in an atmosphere which encourages freedom of inquiry, freedom to discuss, and mutual relationships; and that certain measurable attitudes of the teacher will, if measured, give a clue to the successfulness of the teacher's work in the classroom. The items in the inventory discriminate sharply between teachers who have and those who do not have good rapport with pupils. There are norms for experienced teachers so that the instrument lends itself to use in schools where teachers are eager to develop their own program for evaluation of teaching services.

There is a place for evaluation by a supervisor, too, in spite of the fact that there seems to be a "trend" to shy away from such evaluations. Teachers have frequently reported keen disappointment over the fact that no attempt is made by principals and supervisors to evaluate their work. In a recent study, Shawinsky<sup>10</sup> found that 87 of 173 teachers he polled in graduate classes in summer session at the University of Connecticut expressed concern over the fact that no one ever visited their classes for the purpose of giving them an evaluation of their work. These same teachers unanimously reported that they believed supervisors should visit classes for the purpose of evaluating instruction. If appropriate rapport has been established, teachers welcome evaluation by supervisory officers provided the evaluation has some "meat in it." On the contrary, teachers oppose evaluation which is characterized by idle words, symbolism, and observations concerning the appropriateness of the lighting and other mechanical aspects of the classroom situation. One of the chief reasons why "supervision" has been in disrepute lies in the fact that supervisory agents frequently have little or nothing to contribute to the improvement of the teaching-learning situation.

No one denies that meat and potatoes are good foods, but even the unschooled in medicine and dietetics readily agree that a person who ate nothing but meat and potatoes would suffer seriously from partial starvation. Similarly, a learner must have a balanced ration of learning activity if he is to grow appropriately. In spite of this, many teachers prescribe only *memoriter* types of learning experiences for children.

A supervisor should be able to observe the work of a teacher for the purpose of helping the teacher evaluate the ration of learning experiences offered to children. To do this, he must be able to observe the teacher at

<sup>10</sup> Joseph Shawinsky, *What Teachers Expect of Supervisors*, Master's paper, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn., August, 1952.



work for the purpose of discovering the types of learning experiences in which children are engaged. He should be able to find a balanced program of activity which will include

1. Direct or perceptual experiences.
2. Vicarious experiences.
3. Generalizing experiences in which learners compare, organize, analyze, and classify their direct and vicarious experiences.
4. Scrutinizing experiences in which learners examine the products of thought to discover basic principles, concepts, and normatives.
5. Creative experiences in which learners utilize their previous learnings for the manufacturing of responses to distinctly new situations.
6. Tracing experiences in which learners trace the thinking of others.
7. Policy-making experiences in which learners express their beliefs and commitments in more or less generalized forms resulting in rules and regulations to which they have made commitments.
8. Intensifying experiences designed to fix basic habits which are recognized as important (drill).
9. Emotional experience in which learners learn to appreciate and develop a liking for music, art, literature, and similar bodies of knowledge which involve feelings.

The supervisor can be of great service to teachers by evaluating the nature of assignments made. He should look for

1. Requests to read for the purpose of remembering.
2. Requests to read for the purpose of locating information.
3. Requests to read for the purpose of understanding the material read.
4. Requests to read for the purpose of criticizing the material read.
5. Requests to read for the purpose of discovering exactly what should be done (reading directions).
6. Requests to read for the purpose of supplementing discussion or of supplementing the text.
7. Requests to read for the purpose of analyzing the content.
8. Requests to read for enjoyment.

Reading is one of the most important, if not *the* most important, activity on all levels. Unfortunately, however, many supervisors know so little about reading that they are unable to evaluate the work of others. Supervisors need technical mastery in the art of teaching and supervising. If they have such technical mastery, their evaluations are helpful and desirable.

Teachers who understand the learning process, teachers who understand child growth and development, and teachers who are convinced that teaching children is an exciting and thrilling experience can benefit greatly from self-evaluation. Unless the teacher possesses all three of these characteristics, however, the author doubts the value of "self-evaluation."



Self-evaluation involves, first of all, setting forth clearly what the purposes and goals of the learning experiences are. Are the teacher's goals also the learners' goals? If they are not, learning is unlikely to occur. What types of learning exercises are appropriate for achieving the common goals? Does the teacher devise appropriate learning exercises or experiences? Does the teacher assign these exercises? Do children assign themselves appropriate exercises? What about motivation? Do the children really want to learn? If not, what is wrong? Does the teacher understand the importance of guidance in learning; can she help the children learn? Does she know how to evaluate learning of many types? Or is she skilled only in measuring *memoriter* types of learning? Are children tested for more than acquisition of skills, information, and facts? Do evaluative procedures include measurement of the ability of children to meet new situations? Is there a balanced ration of learning experience? Can the teacher develop classroom rapport? Is "discipline" a problem?

These and many other important questions can be asked by a teacher of himself if he understands learning and child development, and if he is really thrilled by the experience of teaching. To ask these questions without the latter leads, in the main, to rationalization.

Frequently, groups of teachers can pool their knowledge and their feelings to develop excellent self-evaluative criteria which may be used with profit by all.

Probably the most useful and valid evaluation of teachers is that given by students themselves. But not many teachers, at the moment, are eager or overly willing to encourage student participation in the evaluation of teaching. Those teachers who have mustered the courage to encourage pupils to evaluate their teachers have reported that the results were wholesome and constructive. Strangely enough, teachers usually are surprised by the high value assigned their services.

Teachers are always being evaluated by their pupils whether they are willing to recognize it or not. Children talk over the relative merits or demerits of their teachers with other children, with their parents, with people in the community, and with other teachers or administrative officers. Unfortunately, most teachers are likely to hear, secondhand, the adverse reports made by children; hence they assume that all children make negative evaluations.

While teachers are usually quite willing to pass judgment upon children and broadcast their evaluations in the form of report cards, honor rolls, and similar devices, they seem to be most reluctant to permit open evaluation of themselves by those whom they teach.

Teachers could easily prepare a simple evaluation form which could be given to each child in the class once or twice per year to be filled out,



unsigned by the student, and returned to the teacher. In one school system where the writer was a teacher, the staff devised the following form for learners to fill out once each semester.

### FORM FOR PUPIL EVALUATION OF TEACHERS

#### DIRECTIONS:

You are requested to evaluate the teacher by merely circling certain letters. You are not asked to write anything. Your name is not requested. Please be honest, fair, and sincere. Please circle the appropriate letter after each statement. The letters have the same meaning in this valuation as they have on your grade sheet or report card.

1. Knowledge of subject.	A	B	C	D	E
2. Understanding pupils.	A	B	C	D	E
3. Fairness in marking.	A	B	C	D	E
4. Reasonableness in requirements.	A	B	C	D	E
5. Interest in pupils.	A	B	C	D	E
6. Human qualities.	A	B	C	D	E
7. Sense of humor.	A	B	C	D	E
8. Standards for learning.	A	B	C	D	E
9. Interest in rapid learners.	A	B	C	D	E
10. Interest in slower learners.	A	B	C	D	E
11. Likableness.	A	B	C	D	E
12. General effectiveness.	A	B	C	D	E

The use of the above pupil evaluative instrument was interesting indeed. Teachers were agreeably surprised with the fact that on the average they were given better than C ratings, that in the main, learners assigned more A and B evaluations than D or E.

Every group of teachers could devise some sort of evaluation device by which learners could give teachers "consumer evaluations" of the work of the teacher.

#### *Use of Evaluations*

All of the various types of evaluation could be used in the following ways:

1. Administrative and supervisory officers could use them as bases for personal conferences with teachers.
2. Teachers could use them in cooperative study of improvement of teaching.
3. Administrative officers could use them as evidence to show boards of education that teachers were actively engaged in efforts to improve themselves as teachers.
4. Teachers' organizations could use them as bases for establishing professional requirements for membership.
5. Individual teachers could use them for locating their own strengths and weaknesses.



Research in the field of measurement of teacher effectiveness has doubtless added much to our general understanding of desirable teacher abilities, traits, and competencies, but the professional worker should be warned that, as yet, no satisfactory means of identification or definition of teaching competencies has been devised. Hence, teachers who work cooperatively in developing a program for evaluation of the services of teachers should proceed with caution and care, being careful to study the literature in the field and the basic assumptions underlying every instrument or device used.

The most fertile field for study of the whole problem of evaluation of teachers and teaching is in the local school system, where teachers working together with a sincere desire to improve as teachers are willing to experiment with instruments and procedures of all kinds.

### SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Has your school suffered from public attacks upon the schools? What has been the nature of these attacks? Were they attacks or honest criticisms?
2. What is right about merit rating? What is wrong?
3. Read: C. A. Weber, "Determining a Policy in a School Situation," *Teachers College Record*, 46(4):229-235 (January, 1945). Give your reaction to the procedure.
4. What statistical procedures and facts should every teacher understand before he participates in an evaluative program for measuring the efficiency of teaching in his school?
5. Are the needs of all teachers the same? Should all teachers be evaluated on the same basis?
6. What is your reaction to utilizing pupil judgments concerning teachers?
7. What alternatives exist besides self-evaluation by teachers working together and merit rating by "superiors"?
8. Do you think a master's degree in education is a badge of competence as a teacher?
9. What is your reaction to the recommendation regarding use of the National Teacher Examinations as an evaluating device?

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## CHAPTER 7 *Teaching Load*

The problem of equalizing the teaching load has presented itself to most school administrators. Probably the school committees in the early days of our country did not face this problem because teaching was usually the assignment of one schoolmaster who was in no position to object or question his employers. With the growth of schools and their enlargement into multiple-teacher establishments, teachers began to compare their work load with other teachers. As the schools have grown, the matters of equalization of load have become serious problems to some who are engaged in educating the young.

As a result, investigators have sought to develop formulas which could be used by school administrators, boards of education, and teachers to equalize the work load of teachers. In developing formulas, research workers have included such factors as average class size, pupil-teacher ratio, the number of classes per day, the total hours per day spent in teaching, the estimated time required for preparation and for evaluating the work of learners.

Because of the differences in school organization, research workers have developed many different types of formulas. Some have been designed for use in studying problems of load in the elementary schools; others have been developed for departmentalized upper grade schools; still others have been prepared for use in junior and senior high schools.

In the elementary schools the two most important factors have been clock hours per week spent in the schools and the number of children assigned to a teacher. A third factor considered as important is the number of hours spent in preparation, checking records, performing clerical or extracurricular assignments, and marking.

Teachers in the Philadelphia public schools evolved a formula which considered as important the number of teaching hours plus the number of hours spent in staff planning and clerical work.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> *Senior High School Teaching Loads*, Philadelphia Public Schools, Division of Educational Research Bulletin 37, Philadelphia, 1936.



Teachers in many schools have undertaken study of teacher-load problems, and some have reported their experiences in the periodical literature. The most useful and most promising formula for teaching load yet developed is the Douglass formula for measurement of teaching load in secondary schools. Douglass developed the formula in 1945 and revised it in 1950. The formula yields a measure of total teaching load in terms of an arbitrary unit defined as the load involved in teaching a class of twenty-five pupils for a forty-five minute period in a subject area requiring an average amount of preparation time.<sup>2</sup>

The Douglass formula is a most useful instrument for study of teaching load in secondary schools. Although it appears formidable to teachers who have little skill in mathematics, teachers can, without much difficulty, learn to use it. A study of the applications of the Douglass formula in practice reveals that its use is very helpful in studying problems of load in departmentalized schools, junior high schools, and senior high schools. It is the best formula available at this writing.

There is little doubt that formulas are useful in scrutinizing the whole area of teacher load in any given school, but experienced administrators have found that difficulties pertaining to teacher load usually cannot be eliminated by mere use of a formula, regardless of the reliability or validity of the device.

Ward G. Reeder observed that

Experimentation will probably demonstrate that the number of pupils which a teacher can instruct most effectively is determined by various factors such as the qualifications of the teacher, the method of teaching used, the amount and character of supplies and equipment with which the teacher has to work, the amount of extra curricular activities which must be supervised, and the grade, subject, and intelligence of pupils. Here are unworked, yet fruitful, fields for research.<sup>3</sup>

As new devices, such as closed-circuit television, tape recorders, new audio-visual devices, and many other mechanical aids to instruction, are made increasingly available to teachers, formulas now in existence are likely to be discarded for better ones. This imposes a responsibility upon local leadership and upon teachers in a given school system to study problems of teaching load in the local setting.

Experience in all fields of measurement has taught investigators that no product can be more accurate than its least accurate factor. Basically those who have attempted to reduce the problem of teacher load to use of formulas have assumed that teaching is routine work rather than an

<sup>2</sup> Harl R. Douglass, *The 1950 Revision of the Douglass High School Teaching Load Formula*, Bulletin of the NASSP, pp. 13-24, May, 1951.

<sup>3</sup> Quoted by permission, from Ward G. Reeder, *The Fundamentals of Public School Administration*, 3d ed., p. 115, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1951.



artistic experience. They have assumed that there are inherent differences in load factor between, let us say, teaching social studies and teaching mathematics; that time spent in classroom work is burdensome and toilsome; that participation in professional meetings, committee work, and student-leadership activities is burdensome; and that the burden, other things being equal, is proportional to the number of children a teacher must teach in a day or week. If we apply the principle that no product can be more accurate than its least accurate factor, no formula for measurement of teaching load could be more accurate than the basic assumptions regarding the nature of the experience of teaching. If teaching is conceived as a routinized and burdensome occupation, then formulas have great importance, but if teaching is looked upon as an artistic experience, teaching load cannot be measured by mere application of such devices as formulas or equations.

The public schools need teachers who are lured and rewarded by the experience of teaching because they get great satisfaction from the experience. Such a teacher would be one who was aware of the effect of his efforts upon the lives of children, upon the community in which the children live, upon the future of the people of the larger communities which regard education as a prime enterprise. Moreover, such a teacher would see the connection between what he was doing in relation to the whole enterprise of improving the conditions which influence human behavior. Teaching, to be artistic, should be characterized by a deep emotional pressure for the act of teaching and for all the concomitant activities pertinent thereto.

If the pattern of school organization and the methods for dealing with personnel problems of the school are primarily for the purpose of causing teachers to conform and to transmit information and skills to the young; if they are chiefly concerned with perpetuating the standards and rules of conduct of the past and transmitting such standards to the young by means of rules, regulations, and edicts; and if they cause teachers to look upon the school as an institution sharply marked off from other institutions, then time schedules, schemes of classification, methods of promotion, equating of teaching load and formulas for measuring teaching load become important. Similarly, if the attitudes of receptivity, docility, and obedience are the chief goals, the stage is set for making teaching in-artistic and artificial.

Wherever administration of the schools is imposition from above and from outside, teachers and administrators may use devices such as formulas for fixing teacher load to cover up the undesirable features of the situation.

On the other hand, if the administration of a school system is such as to promote and encourage development of teacher expression and



creativity, if it is such as to focus attention upon teaching as an exciting and thrilling experience rather than to focus attention on hours of work, if it is such as to make vital and active appeal to teachers as an opportunity to express their own creativity, if it is such as to cause teachers to feel deeply that they are engaged in a distinctly worthwhile enterprise concerned with shaping the course of human action toward a world changing for the better, then the stage is set for artistic teaching.

But, say some, one must be more realistic about these matters; teachers are laborers; they must eat like everyone else; they must not be looked upon as martyrs to a cause, missionaries, as it were, willing to sacrifice and give of their spirit, energy, and labor for the mere satisfaction of rendering service to man. Some of my dearest colleagues in the profession are prone to "poo-poo" the notion that teachers should be a different brand of human beings, persons whose sole motive is to be loving, kind, considerate workers for the public good.

It is certainly true that teachers, like all other people, hunger naturally for satisfactions in the materials of experience; the hunger of teachers for a chance to be of service to mankind is no less than the urgent impulse for food. Teachers deserve higher salaries, better working conditions, better arrangements to meet their economic needs. But no permanent solution to the problem is likely to be found by mere changes in hours of work or mass techniques for arranging load. No lasting solution to the problem can be found until there is a marked change in the social situation in the school system which enables the teacher to engage in the kind of participation which gives him lasting and enduring satisfaction and pleasure. The idea that the problem can be solved by "decreasing load" through formulas and thereby increasing the hours of leisure is absurd. Such a notion assumes that what teachers want to do is utterly different from that which they must do.

The job facing those responsible for the management of the affairs of the school is to change objective arrangements so that the forces of external pressure will decrease while a sense of freedom and personal interest in the operations increase. Control from above, or from outside the processes and procedures of teaching, is the chief force in preventing the teacher from having that intimate interest in what he does and in what activities he engages that is essential to having an artistic experience as a teacher. There is nothing in the profession of teaching per se that is an insuperable obstacle to workers in the field being aware of the meaning and significance of what they are doing or of enjoyment of companionship or of satisfaction of important work well done. The psychological results of external control are the chief forces that suppress, limit, and thwart aesthetic quality in the process of teaching. Teaching itself cannot be artistic until the people who are responsible for its management



give the teachers an opportunity to be free in the process of planning, devising plans of action, and evaluating such plans. Neither the dull, bored teacher nor the alert, imaginative teacher is what he is so much by native characteristics as by the kind of social situation in which he finds himself in the school.

The farmer, who is looked upon as one of the mainstays in our society, has long and arduous hours; he may be up at dawn to care for his cattle and hogs, to see that they are fed, to check upon their physical condition; he may work all day in the field tending to his crops and return to his home only to go once more to his cattle and hogs, working perhaps until darkness begins. The greatest of farmers have been people of this type, and they never were seriously concerned with load because their hearts were in their work, they enjoyed their activities, they received great satisfaction from their work.

But let a lifelong cattle feeder be forced by circumstances to quit raising cattle and start raising sheep, and load becomes a major problem. Traditionally he has disliked sheep; now he must tend them. Unless such a farmer can overcome his prejudice, he rebels and his work becomes drudgery.

A man who loves to fish the wild streams of the wilderness gets up at dawn, walks miles through the woods, descends steep hills fraught with danger to arrive at his favorite stream. Upon arriving, he works patiently and assiduously, combating rapid water and hidden rocks and holes until the day is nearly over. Then he packs his catch, starts back over some arduous route, plodding his weary way home with his catch. At his camp he prepares his fish for eating because he is hungry, but the eating of his catch has not in any sense destroyed the artistic quality of the experience of seeking, casting, playing, and landing the fish. Does one hear of such a fisherman complaining of load?

But let this same fisherman take a guest with him who has no interest in fishing, who has no interest in the natural surroundings, who does not sense the mystery and romance of the great outdoors, and such a guest will be bored, weary, tired, disgusted, and inclined to exclaim, "I can't understand it: Work all day, take all kinds of risks, get wet, cold, and hungry for a small catch of fish which could be purchased for less than a five-dollar bill!" Such a guest would be concerned with load.

Or observe the merchant who operates a grocery store because he enjoys the operation and because thereby he can meet his economic needs. He may work all day, he may brood over his books at night, he may forsake vacations. If he does these things because he thrills from the experience, the load factor is unnoticed; but if he works out of compulsion from an absentee owner, he chafes and squirms and becomes concerned over load.



It is not a machine gun that is to be feared; rather it is the attitude of the person who holds the gun that is dangerous. It is not teaching which is responsible for problems of load; it is the attitude of those engaged in teaching which makes load such a serious difficulty in schools and colleges. If the total school situation is such as to prevent the act of teaching from being an experience in which the teacher is alive and in which his very being alive is the result of his enjoyment of the experience, the process of performing his official duties lacks the essential qualities of art. No matter how important such a teacher's work may be, no matter how useful in the total pattern of educating children, it will not be an artistic experience that contributes directly, generously, and liberally to enrichment of the life of the teacher.

Does all this mean that school administrators should solve the problem of load by ignoring it? Certainly not! But it does mean that a distinctly different approach to the problem should be made. The problem cannot be solved in the manner suggested by some, namely, that of leaving the problems of load to the superintendents and principals.

In the process of studying the techniques used in the secondary schools of the North Central Association for educating teachers in service, the investigators sought in their inquiry the obstacles encountered in the schools. The chief obstacle reported by the schools was "too-heavy loads for teachers."<sup>4</sup> Forty-five per cent of the schools listed excessive loads as the chief obstacle to growth in service. The second most frequent obstacle listed was the "unprofessional attitude of teachers." Forty per cent of the schools listed this as the chief obstacle.

When a detailed examination of the relationship between the nature of the social climate in the schools and the listing of "teaching load" and "unprofessional attitude of teachers" was undertaken, some very interesting findings resulted. The number of distinctly cooperative techniques employed in the schools was correlated with the obstacles listed by these same schools, including the two mentioned. Similarly the number of distinctly dictatorial policies reported was correlated with the obstacles reported.<sup>5</sup> The correlation between the use of cooperative techniques and the listing of the obstacles mentioned was  $-.26$ , while the correlation between the dictatorial techniques and the listing of the same obstacles was  $+.42$ .

Apparently wherever the climate was cooperative in character, the obstacles of load and poor professional attitude seemed to melt away, while in those situations where the climate was characterized by domina-

<sup>4</sup> C. A. Weber, *Techniques Employed in a Selected Group of Secondary Schools of the North Central Association for Educating Teachers in Service*, Doctoral Dissertation, p. 286, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., 1943.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 152-153.



tion by the administrative officers, the obstacles tended to increase. It is significant to observe that in those schools where teacher load was a major obstacle to growth in service that

1. Faculty meetings were nearly always planned by the administrator.
2. Faculty meetings were held after school.
3. Teachers were required to attend faculty meetings.
4. Discussion in faculty meetings was centered around routine matters which could have been handled by mimeographed statements.
5. There was no stated philosophy of the school.
6. Most committees were appointed by the principal.
7. Increments on the salary schedule could be earned in only two ways: by getting advanced degrees or by teaching additional years in the system.
8. Plans for leaves of absence were limited to sick leave.
9. Very little activity in the area of curriculum development was under way.
10. Teachers reported that most of the initiative for change came from administrators.

Similarly, in these schools where teacher load was not assigned the top position in the list of obstacles, but was either not mentioned or listed as an obstacle of minor importance, the following were characteristics:

1. Faculty meetings were planned by and often presided over by committees of teachers.
2. Faculty meetings were held on school time, before school in the morning, on Saturdays, and at other times selected by the teachers.
3. In most situations teachers were not required to attend faculty meetings.
4. Discussion in faculty meetings was centered around (a) pupil problems and needs, (b) guidance, (c) curriculum development, (d) evaluation of current practices, and (e) administrative policy.
5. Over 40 per cent of the schools had a written statement of philosophy of in-service education.
6. Over half the committees were elected by the staff.
7. Salary increments could be earned by
  - a. Attending summer school.
  - b. Additional service.
  - c. Earning advanced degrees.
  - d. Educational travel.
  - e. Writing magazine articles.
  - f. Conducting experiments with classroom procedures.
8. Leaves of absence included
  - a. Sick leave, cumulative in character.
  - b. Leaves of absence without pay for travel or study.
  - c. Occasionally, sabbatical leave with some pay.
  - d. Occasionally, maternity leave.
9. The schools were quite active in curriculum development.



10. Teachers reported that their schools were characterized by
  - a. Staff encouraged to participate in planning and in policy making.
  - b. Encouragement of staff to participate actively in the solution of problems which faced teachers.

A few quotations from the questionnaires returned by principals or superintendents in the two types of schools shed more light on the problem.<sup>6</sup>

Statement from six schools where teaching load was reported as the most important obstacle to growth of teachers in service:

School A, Illinois: "My philosophy is briefly this: Employ qualified teachers who have good personalities and who are interested in teaching and who are interested in graduate training. Give them good physical equipment and enough supervision."

School B, Montana: "We expect our teachers to get results, and we are not particular about the method. Summer school is required once every three years in order to get an increase in salary."

School C, Ohio: "The principal is so called because he is the principal teacher. It is his function to keep his teachers seeing the larger, more fundamental principles of education and life. If he fails to do this, he is merely an office clerk or politician."

School D, Wisconsin: "My philosophy has been to use every device possible—bulletins, individual conferences, committees, conversations in my office, faculty meetings, directed reading, bulletin boards—to direct attention upon and direct teacher attitudes toward the improvement of teaching."

School E, Wyoming: "Be careful about choosing the teacher. Provide good equipment and favorable surroundings. Help determine his philosophy. Examine his plans and evaluate his progress. Require teachers to plan well, to rely on themselves, put first things first, be tolerant, and be firm."

School F, Ohio: "My philosophy is to give a teacher the benefit of any knowledge or experience I possess. I always endeavor to find strong points in a teacher and to commend her on these points. Often I suggest procedures for her to try out."

Statement from six schools where teaching load was not even mentioned as an obstacle to growth in service:

Chicago, Illinois: "Our philosophy of in-service education is based upon the belief that teachers should develop in their ability to work together cooperatively for the common as well as individual needs of the school."

Denver, Colorado: "We believe more and more that the school itself is a miniature community in which people live together. The older conception of the teacher as the autocratic leader in the classroom and of the principal as the autocratic leader of teachers is giving way to cooperative planning and working together for common ends."

<sup>6</sup> Names of schools and principals are omitted here, but they can be found in *ibid.*, pp. 118-132.



Greenfield, Ohio: "The teaching staff should not be merely a collection of individually competent persons who carry out instructions from above. It should be a cooperating group having common purposes and motivated by common ideals. These teachers should make cooperative attacks upon the fundamental problems of the school, thereby causing them to be an integral part of the school. This results in democratic administration."

St. Louis, Missouri: "A faculty must grow if there is to be student growth. Faculty growth must be a democratic development. Administration is the service and guidance headquarters. Growth comes from continuing, evolving activities in which the group mutually find self-realization and develop mutual powers of judgment and orientation."

Clayton, Missouri: "Our philosophy is based upon the assumption that we must have a school system in which we are mutually cooperative. Such a system is founded on the belief in the integral worth and versatility of man, in the dignity of individual expression, and on the belief that an educated personality may contribute to his environment."

Morrison, Illinois: "Our philosophy is briefly this: No coercion, no hard and fast rules. Teachers are given a hand in formulating policies and practices—including the salary schedule."

A summary of the activities reported by two schools selected at random from those that reported too-heavy teaching load as the chief obstacle to growth, and similar summaries of activities in two schools of like size where too-heavy teaching load was never mentioned as an obstacle, serve to point up the argument presented thus far.

### *Two Schools Where Teacher Load Was a Serious Problem*

The first report selected was one from a small school system in Ohio. Although the schools were requested to have a committee of teachers fill out the form, this one was filled out by the principal. In this school the principal always presided at faculty meetings, all faculty meetings were planned by the principal, and no minutes were kept. Teachers were required to attend faculty meetings. In the space provided for anecdotal descriptions of promising techniques, the following statement appeared: "We have a few books of a professional nature, *but as yet I have not required any in-service education.*"

In this school there were two committees, one on guidance and one on curriculum. All members were appointed by the principal. During the year in which the report was received, neither committee had yet done anything.

Salary increments were given only if the teacher earned a master's degree. There was no provision for leave of any kind with pay except that if a teacher was ill, he received the difference between his salary and the salary of the substitute. There were no health examinations for teachers, no medical service, no recreational activities; nothing was done



to help teachers find living quarters; teachers had no voice whatsoever in selecting new teachers; no effort was made to orient new teachers.

The only curriculum-development techniques reported were:

1. Teachers had a reading room.
2. A few current periodicals were available.

Other specific activities reported were:

1. A teacher was assigned to prepare a weekly bulletin for the press.
2. The principal sent mimeographed announcements to teachers.
3. The principal occasionally visited classes.
4. The principal occasionally showed a teacher how to teach by taking over the class.

The second school selected at random from those which reported that too-heavy load was the chief obstacle to teacher growth was a large high school in a city of more than 100,000 people.

The questionnaire was filled out by the principal and the assistant principal. Bimonthly faculty meetings were held, and they were always planned and presided over by the principal. Teachers never had a part in faculty meetings, although occasionally department heads were given minor roles. Attendance was not required, but teachers were allowed only two "cuts" per year. The only techniques used in faculty meetings were frequent talks by the principal and occasional talks by department heads. Once a college professor lectured to the group.

In the space provided for listing in anecdotal form any promising techniques for encouraging teachers to grow, there appeared the following: "We do something each year to stimulate teacher growth, such as requiring teachers to take a teacher-aptitude test."

The most frequent topics for discussion in faculty meetings were guidance and evaluation of teachers.

There were four committees appointed by the principal, and the principal was ex officio chairman of each of them. These committees were: audio-visual aids, bulletins, assembly programs, and discipline.

Reports of the committees were used by the principal but were never made available to teachers.

Salary increases were given for additional years of service in the system, for extension credit, for summer-session attendance, and for earning an advanced degree.

The only program for leaves of absence was a three-day sick leave cumulative up to fifteen days.

Vaccination and chest X rays were required at teacher expense. No provisions were made for recreation or social life for teachers, and nothing was done to help teachers secure living quarters. Teachers, including



department heads, had no part in selection of new teachers. The principal was entirely responsible for teacher orientation, and he did this solely by means of a mimeographed booklet.

The following were reported as frequent practices:

1. Issuance of bulletins by the principal.
2. Giving teachers visiting days.
3. Holding reading-circle meetings.
4. Holding individual conferences.
5. Holding departmental meetings of teachers.

### *Two Schools Where Teaching Load Was No Problem*

In a small community in West Virginia, the situation was quite different. In this school system a committee of teachers, all of whom signed their names to the instrument, reported upon the in-service education activities. Nowhere in the report did any reference to teacher load as an obstacle appear. In this community teachers and parents were responsible for planning faculty meetings; a committee of teachers working with a parent selected by the PTA did the planning for nearly all faculty meetings. Teachers, and occasionally a parent or the principal, presided at staff meetings. Accurate minutes were kept of all such meetings, and the most frequently discussed topics were (1) how children learn, (2) summaries of recent research in education, (3) guidance, (4) social and economic problems, (5) pupil problems and needs, (6) curriculum development, (7) evaluation of the school's program, (8) recent experiments in teaching, (9) techniques of teaching, and (10) teacher problems. Administrative details were infrequently mentioned in staff meetings.

The methods of conducting meetings were varied. Panel discussions, short talks by teachers (and occasionally by parents), short talks by the principal, and open discussion were common. Once or twice each year the staff and parents conducted a forum open to parents, teachers, and pupils of the high school.

The chief obstacles to growth in this school were listed as (1) lack of source material for use of teachers in connection with the study of their problems, and (2) unrest among teachers and pupils because of the world situation.

In this school three committees functioned continuously, one to plan faculty meetings, another to suggest reading materials for the staff, and a third to plan the recreational and social activity for teachers.

The teachers reported that they had engaged in the following activities very frequently:

1. Joint study of the curriculum by parents, teachers, and pupils.
2. Cooperative development of guidance bulletins for parents and pupils.



3. Cooperative studies of graduates to discover whether the schools had been meeting needs of pupils.
4. Organized studies of the socio-economic background of pupils.
5. Requested pupils to fill out check lists evaluating the curriculum, teaching, and activity program.
6. Held seminars for several days before opening of school to plan program for the year.
7. Selected teachers to work with administrators in planning budget.
8. Engaged in intervisitation within the school.
9. Visited homes of children.
10. Organized cooperative research problem to carry out in summer session at a college.
11. Visited other schools.
12. Organized committees of parents and teachers to evaluate the school.

In a larger city, population 115,000, selected to match the second school described in this series, the following was found to exist.

In this school in Iowa, there were seventy-five teachers in the high school. Each faculty meeting was planned by a committee of teachers. The principal called meetings to order and then turned the meeting over to the committee. Occasionally, when requested to do so by the committee, the principal planned and executed staff meetings, but the bulk of the planning was done by committees elected by the staff. Accurate minutes were kept of all faculty meetings, and copies were mimeographed and distributed to teachers, parents, pupils, and the local press. The chief topics discussed were

1. Curriculum development.
2. The nature of learning.
3. Administrative policies.
4. Democratic school practices.
5. Evaluation of present practices.
6. Teacher problems.
7. Experiments and research.

Teachers were actively engaged in the following:

1. Cooperative evaluation of the school program.
2. Conducting forums open to the public concerning school services, needs, and problems.
3. Home visitation and parent conferences.
4. Committee work on such problems as developing a philosophy, homeroom organization, student clubs, guidance, selection of books and other materials of instruction, assembly programs, budget.
5. Committee work on evaluation of plans.

Committees were selected by the principal from a list submitted by the teachers and department heads. All committees included parents



and pupils, and their assigned function was to study problems and make reports to the faculty. These reports were studied, approved or disapproved, or modified by the faculty for the purpose of developing plans of action.

The obstacles to growth which were listed by the principal and a committee of ten teachers were

1. Some instances of complacency.
2. Well-established traditions of some teachers of special subjects.
3. Professional education which had stressed subject-matter proficiency to exclusion of how to teach.<sup>7</sup>

These data seem to indicate that where the climate of the school is conducive to mutuality, democratic cooperation, and intelligent methods of problem solving, the question of teacher load becomes a very minor problem.

Wherever the school program was characterized by the following, teacher load was considered to be a major problem:

1. A philosophy which left teachers out of planning and sharing.
2. Plans of action which were principal- or administrator-centered, such as planning meetings, visiting classes, issuing circulars, holding reading-circle meetings, lecturing to faculty, serving as chairman of committees.

On the other hand, wherever the school program was characterized by the following, teacher load was not mentioned as a major problem:

1. A philosophy which gave teachers a large part in planning and sharing.
2. Plans of action which were developed by cooperative action.
3. Administration which sought
  - a. To bring about coordinated, cooperative thinking.
  - b. To substitute leadership for authority.
  - c. To utilize deliberations of the teachers.
  - d. To serve as coordinator of ideas and procedures initiated by the staff.

There can be little doubt that excessive teaching load is frequently a very serious personnel problem. A major error in dealing with problems of load is to assume that such problems can be solved by letting the superintendent or principal or board of education determine the maximum load of teachers by use of some formula. Problems of teacher load are functions of the climate of the school, functions of the basic attitudes of the teachers, functions of the individual energy output of teachers, and functions of the amount of money available for school support. The best way to solve problems of load is to let the teachers themselves play the leading role in devising plans of attack upon the problem. It may well be that teachers may desire to use formulas in studying the prob-

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*, Chap. XIV, "Illustrations of Programs of In-service Education," pp. 299-343.



lem, but what is most significant is the act of letting teachers play the major role in the devising of methods for solving the load problem.

Teachers who study the problem of load should not overlook the fact that industry has made a distinct contribution to thinking on the problem. Many times educational practitioners are prone to "look down their noses" at industrialists because of the notion that industrial managers are chiefly interested in getting the maximum amount of work out of a worker regardless of the effect upon the worker. Unquestionably this may be too true in many cases, but enlightened leaders in the field of industry are coming to realize that their own interests are not served maximally by such attitudes. One industrial leader writes:

One of the fallacies held most tenaciously by many executives is that an eight hour day is an eight hour day regardless of the type of work performed. This is not true of teaching. Eight hours of work is too grueling a program for an instructor to be able to perform with proficiency. . . . The maximum teaching load should be no more than four hours in any eight hour day, and these four hours should not be continuous. . . . No person responsible for the supervision of training should ask an instructor to assume a load heavier than the one indicated unless he is willing to burn out his teacher and to lower drastically the quality of instruction.<sup>8</sup>

Karl Stecher, not an educator, wrote a book in 1943 that is an emotional explosion of a layman concerning his own attitudes toward education. While the author cannot agree with many of the statements of Stecher, he has read his writing with interest because it is representative of the attitudes of many concerning public education. It is refreshing to read from the pen of a layman such statements as:

The Truth is, the teacher actually spends more hours per day on the job than any other person you can think of. Physically teacher may be away from the school house, but teacher's mind is there about 24 hours a day. This is one of the reasons teachers are that way.<sup>9</sup>

And,

Did you ever try to hold the interest of children for just half an hour? I do not mean out of doors on a fishing trip or a hike or a ball game. I mean in a classroom. If you have never done it, just try it once, with ten year olds. It will open your eyes.<sup>10</sup>

Apparently some people outside the field of professional education are of the opinion that teaching loads are excessive. The intelligent school

<sup>8</sup> Quoted by permission from Earl G. Planty, William S. McCord, and Carlos A. Efferson, *Training Employees and Managers*, p. 100, The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1948.

<sup>9</sup> Karl Stecher, *Education for the American People*, p. 103, The Mason Press, Macon, Ga., 1943.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 102.



administrator will give his professional staff a real opportunity to explore the whole question of teaching load and will make available to his staff and to the people the best thinking on the problem from all sources so that plans of action can be devised which have public approval.

When teachers study the problem of load, there are many aspects of the problem which should be given consideration. Some of the most important ones are:

1. Size of classes.
2. General characteristics of those who make up the classes.
3. Health characteristics of the individual teacher.
4. Experience of the teacher.
5. Number of preparations per day.
6. Philosophy of the school.
7. General climate in the school.
8. Hours spent per day in classes.
9. Hours spent per day in preparation for teaching.
10. Outside-of-class responsibilities of teachers.
11. Sex of the teacher.
12. Marital responsibilities.
13. Research and writing being done by teachers.
14. Salaries of teachers.
15. Individual points of view of teachers.
16. Public support of education.
17. Administrative responsibilities.
18. Committee activity.
19. In-service education activities.
20. Interests, abilities, and aptitudes of teachers.
21. Clock hours required.
22. Teaching combinations.
23. Type of school (secondary, elementary, junior high school, etc.).
24. Guidance and counseling responsibilities.
25. Emotional health of teacher.
26. Physical handicaps of teachers.
27. Age of teachers.
28. Pre-service training of teachers.

The practice of so-called "homogeneous grouping" has created a serious problem for teachers in terms of load. When a class is composed of children who have been assigned to play roles of "the best," teaching which is not artistic may be effective. It has been said that such children may even learn in spite of the teacher. If, on the other hand, all the children in a school who are "slow learners" are assigned to a teacher, another problem develops. To a teacher especially educated for such an assignment and who has a keen interest in that sort of work, such an assignment is likely to be much less a load than an opportunity. To a



teacher who was never prepared educationally, emotionally, or attitudinally for such work, the assignment of even one class lasting only forty minutes might be an almost unbearable load.

The writer knows one teacher who was employed to teach mathematics in a high school who, because others did not want the job, was assigned to teach four classes in "remedial arithmetic." This teacher with only four classes, none of which enrolled more than twelve children, was so frustrated over the task that she collapsed before the year was over. According to formulas, she had a light load, but according to even ordinary common sense, she had an unbearable teaching load.

Teachers vary in their health and energy characteristics. Some teachers simply cannot stand the rigors of classroom teaching and continued participation in extracurricular activities as supervisors; their own constitutional make-ups will not permit it. On the other hand, some teachers would "chafe at the bit," become bored and restless unless they were given opportunities to participate in all sorts of school and community activities outside the actual classroom. The writer once received the resignation of a teacher in which the following statement appeared:

As much as I have enjoyed teaching, my own energy output is such that every day finds me with a feeling of frustration over the fact that I haven't enough to do. I'm therefore offering my resignation effective at the end of the school year. I shall seek employment in some field where I can work harder.

The teacher who has suffered long illness, or who has suffered severe shock from illness of relatives or friends is not comparable to the well teacher when it comes to assignment of load.

The beginning teacher, for reasons quite antagonistic to good sense, has, in most cases, been assigned teaching loads in excess of other teachers. "The beginning teacher apparently carries a load as much as 10 per cent heavier than the experienced one."<sup>11</sup> The inexperienced teacher should have a lighter load, not a heavier load.

Teachers should take all these matters into account when they study problems of load, and they should be encouraged by administrators to develop agreements regarding basic principles for meeting the problems of teacher load. Next, teachers should be given an opportunity to establish policies for use of school authorities which are consistent with the principles developed. Administrators could then make much more intelligent decisions which were based upon the principles and policies developed by the staff.

The NEA recently studied the problem of teacher load and reported their findings in a very comprehensive report which should be studied

<sup>11</sup> Quoted by permission, from W. S. Monroe (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 1457, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1950.



carefully by all faculties in every school system.<sup>12</sup> The report is designed to be used by local school systems in studying, equalizing, and reducing teaching loads. It is a most valuable and helpful document since it represents the point of view of classroom teachers rather than the point of view of school administrators.

One of the more important features of the report<sup>13</sup> is that on the average only 71 per cent of the elementary school teachers and only 64 per cent of the secondary school teachers reported that they enjoyed their teaching assignments to a very high degree. This is an important finding because it indicates that something should be done in an organizational way to cause more teachers to be extremely happy in the work they are doing.

The average number of pupils taught by elementary school teachers was found to be between thirty and thirty-two, with most of the teachers falling in the groups where teachers had from twenty-five to forty in their classes. On the secondary level the average number of pupils per teacher was found to be 152.

The study revealed that the average work week for elementary school teachers was 47 hours and 50 minutes; that 28 hours and 15 minutes were devoted to actual instruction; 11 hours and 52 minutes to preparing materials, reading papers, personal preparation, giving individual help and contacting parents; and that 7 hours and 43 minutes were spent in monitorial duties, recording information, attending meetings, and conferring with school authorities.

The average for secondary school teachers was a work week of 47 hours and 58 minutes divided as follows:

Instruction.....	23 hours, 4 minutes
Out-of-class instructional duties.....	12 hours, 59 minutes
Extracurricular, records, monitorial.....	11 hours, 55 minutes

Differences of load on the basis of sex were found to be slight.<sup>14</sup>

The elementary teachers were requested to indicate whether they felt under "little strain" or "considerable strain" as they worked. Fifty-eight per cent reported that they were under little strain, while 42 per cent indicated that they were under considerable strain. The data reported in Table 1 about the two groups shed considerable light upon the problem.

The data presented in Table 1 bear out the assertion made earlier in this discussion that load is, to a large extent, a function of the satisfaction one derives from teaching. While the differences in pupil load and hours per week worked are noticeable, they are not significantly dif-

<sup>12</sup> *Teaching Load in 1950*, NEA Research Bulletin 29, No. 1, February, 1951.

<sup>13</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 9.

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 19.



Table 1. Reactions of Elementary Teachers to Their Assignments

	Those who reported little strain	Those who reported considerable strain
Pupil load.....	29	33
Hours per week, instruction.....	28.1	28.4
Hours per week, out-of-class duties.....	11.3	12.7
Hours for other duties.....	7.3	8.3
Hours for all duties.....	46.7	49.4
Per cent who reported that they really enjoyed their work.....	81	56
Per cent who regarded load as very heavy..	31	75

SOURCE: *Teaching Load in 1950*, NEA Research Bulletin 29, No. 1, February, 1951.

ferent, but the difference in satisfaction derived from teaching is great. Believing that load is excessive appears to be related more to enjoyment of teaching than to the other factors.

Similarly the secondary school teachers were studied, except that separate reports were made for men and women. For the men the data are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Reactions of Men to Their Teaching Assignments

	Little strain	Considerable strain
Pupil load.....	157	146
Pupil hours per week.....	604	575
Hours, instruction.....	22.7	23.2
Hours, out-of-class instructional duties.....	12.2	13.2
Hours, other duties.....	12.2	13.8
Total hours per week.....	47.2	50.2
Per cent reporting that they really enjoyed assignment....	57.0	26.0
Per cent who regarded load as heavy.....	32.0	47.0

SOURCE: *Teaching Load in 1950*, NEA Research Bulletin 29, No. 1, February, 1951.

With the men the significance of an attitude of general satisfaction with the assignment is an even more noticeable factor than it was with elementary school teachers.

The secondary school women reported as in Table 3.

It appears that elementary teachers, men who teach in secondary schools, and women who teach in secondary schools tend to regard teaching load as heavy in inverse proportion to their enjoyment of the assignment. This factor seems to stand out as more important than pupil load or hourly load. In the case of the men, the pupil load was smaller



Table 3. Reactions of Women to Their Teaching Assignments

	Little strain	Considerable strain
Pupil load.....	144	164
Pupil hours per week.....	564	616
Hours per week, instruction.....	23.2	23.2
Hours per week, out-of-class instruction.....	12.5	14.2
Hours per week, other duties.....	10.6	12.2
Total hours per week.....	46.4	49.6
Per cent reporting that they really enjoyed assignment...	67.0	23.0
Per cent who regarded load as heavy.....	24.0	48.0

SOURCE: *Teaching Load in 1950*, NEA Research Bulletin 29, No. 1, February, 1951.

for those who felt under the most strain, but the satisfaction with assignment for such men was less than for those who had the larger pupil load.

Wisely, those responsible for the NEA inquiry examined the reactions of teachers to attempt to locate the real sources of dissatisfaction. Their results are as follows:

- 30 per cent attributed it to type as well as number of pupils.
- 21 per cent attributed it to inadequacies of school facilities.
- 18 per cent attributed it to requirements of extracurricular work.
- 15 per cent attributed it to clerical and administrative work.
- 12 per cent attributed it to planning requirements.
- 11 per cent attributed it to guidance activities.
- 10 per cent attributed it to professional-improvement requirements.
- 7 per cent attributed it to changes in methods required.
- 7 per cent attributed it to required community relationships.

It is significant to note that every one of the causes is directly related to personnel management policies rather than to what is commonly called teaching load. These teachers apparently resented certain types of pupils, poor school facilities, requirements to serve extracurricular groups, requirements to perform clerical and administrative duties, requirements to serve as counselors, requirements to grow in service, and pressures to take part in community activities. Have these teachers been working in schools where planning and policy making have been shared? Or have they been working in schools where the top people told the workers what the goals were and how they were to be achieved? The reader should review the earlier statements in this chapter and in the chapter on In-service Education and judge for himself. The answer seems clear enough to the writer.

It is even more significant to note that those who reported that they experienced considerable strain and who also reported, in the main, that



they were not satisfied with their assignments and at the same time complained the most about the loads being too heavy, reported as follows:

- 51 per cent attributed their strain to type and number of pupils. (Note that numbers were not much different, so it must have been *type*.)
- 29 per cent attributed their strain to poor facilities.
- 19 per cent attributed their strain to extracurricular assignments.
- 22 per cent attributed their strain to clerical and administrative work.
- 21 per cent attributed their strain to instructional planning.
- 18 per cent attributed their strain to guidance activity.
- 13 per cent attributed their strain to requirements for professional growth.
- 15 per cent attributed strain to requirements for method changes.
- 9 per cent attributed strain to requirements for community participation.

To get a better picture, the reader should examine Table 4.

Table 4. Causes of Teacher Frustration Concerning Load

Complaint	Reported little strain	Reported considerable strain
Number and type of pupil.....	19%	51%
Poor school facilities.....	15	29
Extracurricular work.....	7	19
Clerical and administrative work.....	8	22
Instructional planning.....	5	21
Guidance activities.....	6	18
Professional improvement requirements.....	9	13
Changes in methods.....	3	15
Community participation.....	4	9

SOURCE: *Teaching Load in 1950*, NEA Research Bulletin 29, No. 1, February, 1951.

One cannot escape the observation that those teachers who complain the most about load are those who would rather teach the rapid learner than the run-of-the-mill pupil; they are those who are dissatisfied with school facilities; they are those who do not care enough about children to seek to work with them after class hours; they are those who do not care to assume responsibility in planning and administering; they are those who dislike guidance and counseling; they are those who do not care to grow in service; they are those who rebel at change; they are those who dislike participation in community affairs.

Once again the author points out that the problem of teaching load cannot be solved by a formula or even by hundreds of formulas. On the contrary, the problem of teacher load must be solved by changing the attitudes of those who are at work in the schools, by changing the whole administrative machinery and the climate of the schools so that teaching becomes an artistic experience. It can never be done by preaching.



No miracle is required. As Dewey<sup>15</sup> has written, it requires no miracle to drive a modern car through the thickest of jungles; it requires no miracle to grow beautiful flowers in the most arid of deserts. All that is required is to cut a road through the jungle and take water to the desert. Objective arrangements must be changed in our schools so that teachers themselves can have a much larger share in the determination of principles to follow, policies to guide action, and plans of action to achieve goals.

Of the 2,200 teachers who reported certain conditions existing in the schools in which they were working, 574 regarded some of these conditions as making teaching load heavier. These conditions, and the percentage of these 574 teachers who reported each condition as adding to the load, are listed in Table 5.

*Table 5. Percentage Reporting Conditions Which Tend to Make Teaching Load Heavier*

<i>Condition</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Inadequate textbooks and supplies.....	66
Majority of pupils not appreciative, responsive.....	60
Principal not friendly, sympathetic.....	54
Special problems due to numbers of difficult pupils.....	51
Teacher has no desk of her own.....	51
Teacher not teaching preferred grade or subject.....	48
Principal lacks insight into classroom problems.....	47
Excessively noisy classroom surroundings.....	44
School library service not offered.....	44
Audio-visual aids not available when needed.....	43
Extra duties not of type preferred.....	43
School as a whole excessively overcrowded.....	43
Interruptions to class sessions frequent.....	41
Curriculum experiments teacher does not approve.....	40
Unsatisfactory clerical help.....	39
Feeling by teachers that load is unfairly divided.....	39
Principal not forward-looking, professional.....	39
Unsatisfactory custodial service.....	38
Promotion standards not approved by teachers.....	37
Inadequate workroom facilities.....	35
School without full-time principal.....	29
Favoritism in assigning classes and duties.....	29
Teachers do not participate in planning.....	27
Teacher does not have helpful supervisors.....	27
Inadequate rest-room facilities.....	23

SOURCE: *Teaching Load in 1950*, NEA Research Bulletin 29, No. 1, February, 1951.

It should be pointed out that Table 5 cannot be interpreted to mean that all teachers who were included in the study considered the condi-

<sup>15</sup> John Dewey, *Human Nature and Conduct*, p. 23, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1922.



tions mentioned as contributing to loads seeming heavier, because many teachers did not indicate that such conditions existed. It must be interpreted as meaning that wherever the conditions did exist, they were important factors in load.

Lack of agreement concerning the purposes, goals, and function of the schools is apparently a big factor in problems of load, failure to provide instructional materials and services is apparently another factor, failure to provide appropriate working conditions is a factor, failure to establish a climate conducive to friendliness and mutuality is a factor, and failure to provide for teacher participation in planning is a factor. These are factors which can best be solved by a serious and cooperative study of teachers working with status leaders.

Superintendents and principals who were questioned on the problem of load seemed to feel that increasing guidance responsibilities of teachers, increases in the number of pupils, increases in requirements for in-service education, changes in the curriculum, increases in extracurricular activities, and changes in promotional standards tended to increase load. Their replies reflect about the same point of view as that of teachers although they did not seem to recognize the factor of absence of co-operative planning.<sup>16</sup>

The teachers were requested to make recommendations concerning the steps which might be taken to reduce teaching load. Table 6 is a summary of their statements.

Table 6. Recommendations by Teachers to Reduce Teaching Load

Recommendation	Percentage
Secure additional personnel, teachers, clerical help, monitorial helpers.....	41
Improve administrative management (policies, curriculum, selection of teachers, extracurricular activities, supplies, leadership, grouping).....	40
Improve scheduling (an additional administrative area).....	38
Improve the school plant.....	18
Better salaries, more study of the situation, etc.....	8

SOURCE: *Teaching Load in 1950*, NEA Research Bulletin 29, No. 1, February, 1951.

Conflicts over marks and marking systems were found to be underlying causes of much of the difficulty concerning teacher attitudes. Teachers complained that confusion and lack of understanding concerning the problems of evaluation of achievement of pupils was a serious matter.<sup>17</sup>

The whole report of the NEA research study on teaching load supports the assertion that the problem of teaching load is far too complicated for solution by tricks and devices such as load formulas. Until teachers, working together, can come to better agreements regarding their own

<sup>16</sup> *Teaching Load in 1950*, op. cit., p. 28.

<sup>17</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 31.



philosophy of education, regarding their own plans for achievement of their own goals, and regarding the methods to be used for evaluation of their activities as teachers in achieving their goals, no real solution to the problem of load can be found. Tinkering with symbols of the difficulty will not solve the problem.

If a school leader is really concerned with solving the problem of teacher load, he will change objective arrangements so that teachers themselves can devise plans of action for:

1. Development of better administrative policies.
2. Development of a democratic atmosphere.
3. Handling instructional supplies.
4. Providing auxiliary and monitorial services.
5. Eliminating interruptions of teachers' work.
6. Better methods of grouping.
7. Better methods of dealing with nonconforming pupils.
8. Improving the school schedule.
9. Providing free time for teachers during the day.
10. Placing teachers in assignments which they will enjoy.
11. Improving the school plant.
12. Studying the philosophy of the school.
13. Studying the marking system.
14. Improving salary schedules to reward teachers for growth activities.
15. Management of extracurricular activities.
16. Utilizing maximally the special skills and abilities of teachers.

In conclusion, local school leadership should attack the problem of teaching load by making it possible for teachers to engage in the following activities on a cooperative basis:

1. Evaluation of their own school program in terms of commonly accepted purposes and goals.
2. Developing plans of action for solving the difficulties discovered in the evaluation.
3. Cooperation with regional, state, and national agencies in attacks upon common problems.
4. Providing time for teachers to do cooperative planning.
5. Working with the NEA and similar organizations.
6. Providing organized study of specific difficulties by teachers.
7. Encouraging teachers to select their own committees to work on problems.

#### SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Who establishes teachers' loads in your school system? Discuss.
2. Do you really enjoy teaching? Give reasons for your answer. Are there any aspects of teaching you thoroughly dislike? What are they?
3. Have the teachers in your school ever had an opportunity to develop a



plan for determining or studying the teacher load in your school? If your answer is "yes," describe what you have done; if "no," give reasons why you have not had the opportunity.

4. How do you account for the fact that there is an apparent positive correlation between use of cooperative techniques of administration and absence of teaching load as a major problem?

5. What skills do teachers need to study problems of teacher load? Do most teachers have these skills?

6. What is the philosophy of your school with respect to in-service education of teachers? Compare with those quoted in this chapter and attempt to discover which one is most like yours.

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## CHAPTER 8 *Teacher Tenure*

Gradually teachers have achieved some legal status. In the beginnings of our system of public education, standards were nebulous and were largely determined by local political and sectarian beliefs. As local schools have become integral parts of state school systems, laws have been enacted which affect the professional preparation, conduct, and security of teachers. Such laws include requirements concerning certification of teachers, enactments concerning salaries of teachers, provisions for retirement of teachers with pay, statements concerning evaluation of the merit of teachers, and provisions for tenure.

Two types of tenure laws have been developed, the first being the contract-type tenure law and the second being a policy-stating tenure law. Usually teachers, board members, and administrators do not understand the basic differences between them, and in nearly all cases the general public is ignorant of such differences. The first type of tenure law creates contracts of a continuing nature between teachers and school districts or between teachers and the state. The second type of law does not create a contractual relation but merely states legislative policy which may be changed by subsequent legislative enactments.

Thus if a teacher has "tenure" under the first type of law, which is contractual in relationship, the Constitution of the United States prevents its change in spite of subsequent legislative enactment since the Supreme Court of the United States has established sacredness of contractual relationship as one of the basic guarantees of American democracy. However, if a teacher has "tenure" under the second type of law, where there is no contractual relation but where the law merely sets forth policy, such a teacher can lose all tenure benefits by subsequent legislative action because the same courts have held that in matters of policy one legislature cannot tie the hands of a future legislature.

Even under the first type of tenure law, the protection of the Federal Constitution applies only to those who actually have vested contract



rights. Legislatures may at any time change the law for persons to be employed at a later date. In short, contract-type tenure laws may be changed, but the changes apply only to future employees, not retroactively. Teachers who have been employed in states where the contractual type of tenure laws have been enacted and who have acquired such contractual status have rights which the local school district cannot impair and which the state itself cannot take away. For such persons those rights continue even though the state laws should be changed.

The United States Supreme Court ruled that New Jersey teachers have legislative status but not contractual status.<sup>1</sup> Later the same court ruled that in Indiana the teachers had contractual status.<sup>2</sup> This means that tenure once acquired by a teacher in New Jersey can be taken away, but that tenure once acquired by a teacher in Indiana cannot be taken away.

Similarly the courts of Oregon held that the tenure law in Oregon was a policy-stating law rather than a law which provided contractual relationship between the teachers and the school district.<sup>3</sup> The tenure law in New York was ruled to be such as not to give a teacher vested right in his position.<sup>4</sup>

The Illinois tenure law contains a statement which makes it impossible for the courts to rule that contractual relations have been created which give teachers rights that may not be impaired. The law in that state contains the statement,<sup>5</sup> "Nothing herein limits the right of the General Assembly to amend or repeal any part of sections 24-2 to 24-7, inclusive, or any contract resulting therefrom."

In California the courts have decided that the legislature may impair the obligation of the tenure contract.<sup>6</sup>

From these court decisions it seems clear that it is possible to create tenure laws which may be impaired by legislative act or which may not be so impaired.

If tenure is looked upon as that contractual status which guarantees that a teacher shall have employment in a given school district as long as he is competent, physically fit to teach, and as long as he conforms to the reasonable rules of the board of education and obeys the laws of the state and nation, then we can discuss the merits of tenure more intelligently. But if there is no definition of the term "tenure," no discussion can be of much consequence.

<sup>1</sup> *Phelps v. Board of Education of West New York*, 300 U.S. 319 (1937).

<sup>2</sup> *Indiana ex rel. Anderson v. Brand*, 303 U.S. 95 (1938).

<sup>3</sup> *Campbell v. Aldrich*, 79 P.2d 257 (Ore. 1938).

<sup>4</sup> *Lapolla v. Board of Education of New York City*, 15 N.Y.S.2d 149 (N.Y. 1939).

<sup>5</sup> *Smith-Hurd Illinois Annotated Statutes*, Chap. 122, Sect. 24-8.

<sup>6</sup> *Taylor v. Board of Education of City of San Diego*, 89 P.2d 148 (Calif. 1939); *Phelps v. Prussia*, 141 P.2d 440 (Calif. 1943).



The reasons for tenure have been well stated by the NEA:<sup>7</sup>

1. To prevent political control of schools and teaching positions.
2. To permit and encourage teachers to devote themselves to the practice of their profession without fear or favor.
3. To encourage competent and public spirited teachers to remain in the schools.
4. To discourage school management based upon fear and intimidation.
5. To prevent the discharge of teachers for political, religious, personal, or other unjust reasons.
6. To protect teachers in their efforts to secure well financed and adequate education for the children in their charge.

Certain basic principles for the development of tenure legislation were formulated by the Committee on Tenure Legislation of the NEA. This list has been approved by many other groups that have studied the problem.<sup>8</sup> They are stated here.

1. Teacher tenure laws should be devised and administered in the interest of better instruction for children.
2. Tenure laws should be accompanied by proper legal regulations governing training, certification, remuneration, and retirement allowances.
3. Tenure laws should be devised and administered as a stimulus to better preparation and more efficient service on the part of teachers.
4. Indefinite tenure should be provided after successful experience during a probationary period of adequate length, usually two or three years.
5. The right of dismissal should be in the hands of the employing board.
6. Laws establishing indefinite tenure should provide for the easy dismissal of unsatisfactory or incompetent teachers for clearly demonstrable causes, such as misconduct, incompetence, evident unfitness for teaching persistent violation or refusal to obey laws, insubordination, neglect of duty, or malfeasance.
7. The proposed dismissal of a teacher on account of incompetence or neglect of duty should be preceded by a warning and specific statement in writing of defects.
8. In case of proposed dismissal, teachers should be granted the right of hearing.
9. Teachers who do not desire to continue in their positions should give reasonable notice in writing of their intention.
10. Suitable provision should be made for teachers already in service when putting laws into operation.
11. Indefinite tenure should be accorded to all classes of certified school employees on status of teacher, at least.

At the present time teachers in twenty-one states enjoy the benefits of some form of tenure on a state-wide basis:

<sup>7</sup> *A Handbook on Teacher Tenure*, NEA Research Bulletin 14, No. 4, p. 169, September, 1936.

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 169-170.



Alabama	Iowa	New York
Arizona	Kentucky	New Mexico
California	Louisiana	Ohio
Colorado	Maryland	Oregon
Florida	Massachusetts	Pennsylvania
Illinois	Montana	Rhode Island
Indiana	New Jersey	West Virginia

In the following twenty states some form of tenure provision is made by state legislative act or by local legislative acts:

Arkansas	Minnesota	North Dakota
Connecticut	Mississippi	South Carolina
Delaware	Missouri	Tennessee
Georgia	Nebraska	Texas
Kansas	Nevada	Washington
Maine	New Hampshire	Wisconsin
Michigan	North Carolina	

In the following seven states annual contracts are the only type permitted, and any contract for a longer period is unenforceable:

Idaho	Vermont
Oklahoma	Virginia
South Dakota	Wyoming
Utah	

From these data the composite picture becomes about as follows:<sup>9</sup>

1. In twenty-one states teachers enjoy some state-wide form of tenure which gives them, after a probationary period, some form of continued service status without the requirement of annual notice.
2. In twenty states, some teachers but not all teachers by legislative act or by rules of local boards of education have some form of tenure.
3. In seven states annual contracts are either customary or mandatory, and no provision is made for any other form of contract.

In 1936, the NEA<sup>10</sup> reported a very different situation. A comparison of the situation in 1936 and 1950 follows:

Type of legislative provision	In 1936	In 1950
Some state-wide form of tenure. . . . .	7	21
No legislative provision, annual contracts customary, or annual contracts required by law. . . . .	27	7
Some form of tenure provided for some teachers in special localities, usually by local board action, or contracts permitted for periods of 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 years in some situations. . . . .	14	20

<sup>9</sup> These data have been secured from *Teacher Tenure Manual*, NEA Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, Washington, May, 1950.

<sup>10</sup> *A Handbook on Teacher Tenure*, op. cit., p. 172.



There can be little doubt that the trend is toward granting teachers tenure on a state-wide basis. If one has faith in the democratic form of government, if one has faith in the judgment of people, and if one examines what has been done in the legislative halls of the states where our democratically elected representatives have passed judgment upon the value of tenure for teachers, one is compelled to assert that the people of the United States are supporters of the principle of granting tenure to teachers. It was pointed out early in this book that the scientific way to arrive at values was to attempt to discover what seemed to be common sense to the people. The term "common sense" was used to mean "sense common to all," not ordinary opinion. On this basis it is safe to say that the odds are greatly in favor of asserting that providing teachers tenure is a good procedure. Subsequent facts may alter the situation, but at the present time tenure for teachers makes common sense to more and more people of our country every year. The odds have changed from about 21 to 7 *against* tenure to about 21 to 7 *for* tenure in the fourteen-year period ending in 1950. It should be clear to the reader, however, that the odds are not yet great enough to be certain. As the odds become nearer and nearer 48 to 0, we can assert with growing assurance that we are correct in the belief that tenure is good for education.

An important question should be asked at this point, namely, what objections to tenure stand between favorable odds of 48 to 0 and 21 to 7? The objections to providing teacher tenure fall into three major categories, as follows:

1. Serious obstacles which must be overcome.
2. Obstacles which at first glance seem to be serious but which are actually unreal.
3. Pseudo obstacles which, in reality, are proof of the need for tenure laws.

#### 1. *Serious Obstacles Which Must Be Overcome*

- a. A belief among professional people and laymen that teachers who have tenure would no longer be interested in professional growth, that once their jobs have been made secure, they would no longer feel any obligation to become better teachers.
- b. A belief among professional people and laymen that tenure laws would "freeze" into the school systems teachers who are physically unfit to teach.
- c. A belief among professional educators and laymen that teachers who are not well mentally would be frozen into the school systems.
- d. A fear on the part of administrators, school-board members, and parents that incompetent teachers would be frozen into school systems.

Much attention must be given to these obstacles, listed under 1. The people cannot permit the enactment of laws which would cause teachers to cease their efforts to become better teachers; they cannot permit the



enactment of laws which would result in loading our schools with incompetent teachers. The people should insist that the schools be staffed by loyal, healthy, growing, competent, wide-awake teachers, and if tenure laws stand in the way, then tenure laws should go. Any self-respecting teacher would agree; in fact, this writer would wager that 90 per cent of the teachers in America do agree.

What are the facts in the case? Are the obstacles inherent in the situation? Can tenure be provided in such a way as to overcome these obstacles?

A study of nearly 1,400 teachers attending summer schools in 1939 disclosed that teachers who enjoyed tenure attended summer school just as often as did teachers who did not have tenure. Do these facts seem to indicate that teacher tenure stops teacher growth?<sup>11</sup>

A study of promising techniques for educating teachers in service in the secondary schools of the North Central Association revealed that promising techniques for encouraging teacher growth were located in schools in nineteen states as follows:

State	Number of schools	Tenure
Arkansas	None	None
Arizona	2	State-wide
Colorado	8	State-wide
Illinois	9	State-wide
Iowa	5	State-wide
Kansas	1	State-wide
Michigan	5	Each had tenure locally
Minnesota	1	None
Missouri	4	State-wide
Montana	1	State-wide
Nebraska	2	State-wide
New Mexico	2	State-wide
North Dakota	None	None
Ohio	1	None
Oklahoma	None	None
South Dakota	None	None
West Virginia	1	State-wide
Wisconsin	1	(In Milwaukee where there is tenure)
Wyoming	None	None

SOURCE: C. A. Weber, *Techniques Employed in a Selected Group of Secondary Schools of the North Central Association for Educating Teachers in Service*, Doctoral Dissertation, Appendix C, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., 1943.

In thirteen states where teachers were given tenure, forty-six schools were found where teacher growth was at an unprecedented level;

<sup>11</sup> W. S. Monroe (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 1438, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1950.



teachers were employing most of the more promising methods for promoting teacher growth; teachers were active, alive, and working. On the other hand, in seven states where teachers had no tenure status, only two schools were found to be making extensive use of the most promising methods for encouraging teachers to grow in service.

Do these facts support any assertion that teacher tenure causes teachers to loaf, rest on their oars, or cease to be interested in growth?

In a recent study of the level of preparation of teachers, it was reported that in the twenty-one states listed in this chapter as having tenure laws, the average percentage of teachers with master's degrees or higher was 13.8 per cent.<sup>12</sup> Similarly, among those states which had only annual contracts, the average percentage of teachers with master's degrees or higher was 7.6 per cent. The percentage of teachers who sought and earned advanced degrees and who were employed in school systems in states with tenure laws was nearly twice the percentage of teachers seeking and earning advanced degrees who were employed in schools in states where there were no tenure laws. Do these data support a theory that teacher tenure inhibits teacher growth, that teacher tenure causes teachers to rest on their oars?

What about the percentage of teachers who have less than two years of college preparation for teaching? The average percentage of teachers having had less than two years of college preparation for teaching and who taught in states where tenure laws existed was 9.4 per cent. In those states where no tenure laws exist, the comparable percentage was 16 per cent.<sup>13</sup> Do these data indicate that giving teachers tenure discourages teacher growth?

No, the facts in the case indicate that where teachers have the benefit of teacher-tenure laws, they are more likely to be engaged in activities which are productive of growth. There is no sound reason for the belief that providing tenure will result in teacher attitudes which are antagonistic to becoming better teachers. The fears of those who say that teachers who have tenure will no longer be interested in professional growth have no foundation in fact.

There is little research to indicate the results of teacher tenure upon the number of teachers physically unfit to teach. But there is nothing to prevent the legislatures of the various states from enacting into law a requirement that any teacher who is to enjoy the rights of tenure must be physically fit to teach. In Illinois, for example, the legislature enacted a permissive law which gave boards of education the right to require teachers to submit, at periodic intervals, evidence that they were

<sup>12</sup> *The Forty-eight State School Systems*, Council of State Governments, Chicago, 1949.

<sup>13</sup> *Ibid.*



in good health, free of communicable disease, and physically fit to teach. The tenure law in that state provides that a teacher has no right to continued contractual service status if he violates the reasonable rules of the board—and the legislature specifically authorized boards of education to pass rules requiring teachers to submit evidence of physical fitness to teach. Legislatures have the right to make rules governing teachers and school districts. It is the belief of this writer that every tenure law should include requirements that teachers submit evidence of physical fitness at periodic intervals in order to enjoy the rights of tenure.

Being mentally ill is a sign of incompetency. Often, being mentally ill is the result of the pressures and frustrations which accompany improper management of personnel problems of teachers. If every step has been taken to remedy the climate of the school so that emotional illness traceable to improper administrative and managerial methods is reduced or eliminated, but teachers continue to show signs of mental ill health, there is no reason why boards of education, if authorized to do so by law, could not request teachers to be treated professionally by competent practitioners for the purpose of seeking to remedy situations involving the mental ill health of teachers. Similarly, if such practitioners agree after appropriate treatment that a teacher is emotionally and mentally unfit to teach, there is no reason why, by legislative act, such a teacher could not be denied the rights of tenure. It is the opinion of this writer that such provisions should be enacted into a teacher-tenure law for the protection of children against such maladjusted, emotionally unhealthy teachers.

Incompetents have no place in the teaching profession. Unfortunately, however, no person or group of persons has yet been able to devise an objective method of measuring teacher competency. One thing is certain, however. It would be better to err on the side of children than to err on the side of teachers, because the schools are for the children, not for the teachers.

The chief protection against incompetents in the teaching profession is to weed out the weak ones during the probationary period. Having been a superintendent of schools for nearly twenty years, the writer knows how difficult it is to prove that a teacher is incompetent. In some states the courts have held that a teaching certificate is a badge of competency. When this is the case, the administrator has a difficult job indeed.

It seems appropriate, therefore, to consider rewriting the procedures for evaluating a teacher during the probationary period, prior to giving a teacher the rights of tenure. It is suggested that the following or its equivalent be written into every teacher-tenure law:



The board of education of a school district shall require that a careful evaluation be made by the superintendent of schools and the professional staff in the building or buildings in which a probationary teacher works. This evaluation shall be made at least twice during the first year of probation. If the evaluation is such as to cast doubt upon the wisdom of retaining a teacher in the schools for a second year, the teacher shall be notified in writing by registered mail not later than March 1 that unless there is marked improvement during the second year of probation that he will not be recommended for employment for the third year.

In a like manner, the work of the probationary teacher shall be evaluated during the second year. If after the second evaluation during the second year of probation, there is still doubt about the competency of said teacher, the superintendent shall notify said teacher in writing by registered mail not later than March 1 that he will not be recommended for employment for the ensuing year. This letter shall refer to the warning letter sent the previous year and shall state the reason as being failure to receive an evaluation positive enough to ensure that the teacher should be placed on the status of tenure.

It should not be necessary to prove incompetency during the probationary period. It should be presumed that where there is reasonable doubt about the competency of a teacher, that such a teacher should not be granted tenure. Furthermore, the tenure law should make it inevitable that teachers as well as administrators play important roles in the evaluation of teachers during the probationary periods. In a previous chapter it was proposed that teachers be given a definite part in the selection of new staff members. It is logical that if they are assured a part in selection, they should also be assured a part in evaluation. Even the "Mr. Milk Toast" type of administrator can find courage to drop a teacher if he has the support of his staff.

In short, the remedy to eliminate the obstacle of incompetency is (1) to follow the plans outlined in this book for employing new teachers, (2) to have a positive plan for cooperatively evaluating teachers during the probationary period, and (3) to eliminate any teacher whose competency is under question *before* she acquires tenure.

Thus, the most important obstacles have been found to be either not founded on fact, removable by legislative act, or removable by sound board policies and intelligent administrative practice which utilizes cooperative action by the staff. Smart managers need have no fears about tenure.

## *2. Obstacles Which at First Glance Seem to Be Serious*

- a. A belief among some professional people, as well as lay people, that those teachers who are noisiest in their demands for tenure least deserve it, that the really competent teacher is never worried about tenure.
- b. A fear by some that teachers inclined to be socialistic or "pink" would be guaranteed jobs in the schools.



- c. A fear on the part of some that giving teachers tenure would result in teachers becoming more demanding and more energetic in their quest for better salaries, better programs for sick leave, better school facilities, better schools for children.
- d. Fear on the part of some people that giving teachers tenure would enable teachers to have much more freedom of inquiry, a freedom which some people would deny to all but a few.
- e. Opposition by administrators because they are men of little faith; they do not trust teachers, and hence they cannot bear the thought of working with teachers they cannot dismiss.
- f. Opposition by administrators because they honestly doubt their own ability to judge teacher competency and therefore doubt their own ability to select wisely promising teachers at the end of probationary periods.
- g. Lack of faith in school administrators. Some teachers fear that at the end of probationary periods they would suffer from discrimination.
- h. Fear on the part of some teachers that tenure would result in boards refusing, on a wholesale basis, and as a matter of policy, to employ teachers beyond the probationary period.
- i. Fear that teacher tenure would give professional people a much freer hand in determining the curriculum for children.

These obstacles deserve analysis even though they are not real. The assumption that those who least deserve tenure are the noisiest in their demands for it may, in many cases, be true. But the facts indicate that the great majority of teachers favor enactment of tenure laws. Each year the delegates to the meetings of the state and national associations of teachers reaffirm their belief in tenure. The noisy teachers who do not deserve tenure are really doing nothing more than capitalizing on a general desire expressed by teachers through their organizations.

The facts fail to support any notion that teachers are inclined to be socialistic or "pink" in their socio-economic beliefs. Research studies on the subject of teacher attitudes toward economic and social problems have revealed that teachers are much more likely to be conservative and to hold the socio-economic views of the higher-income group of people in the nation. Harper<sup>14</sup> in 1927, Tidrick<sup>15</sup> in 1935, the John Dewey Society<sup>16</sup> in 1937, and Goldberg<sup>17</sup> in 1952 all found that teachers as a group were much more likely to hold economic, political, and social views of the more conservative higher-income classes than of the radical or less fortunate economic groups. Furthermore, twenty-six states now

<sup>14</sup> M. H. Harper, *Social Beliefs and Attitudes of American Educators*, Teachers College Contribution to Education 294, Columbia University, New York, 1927.

<sup>15</sup> L. J. Tidrick, *The Social Attitudes of Social Science Teachers*, Doctoral Dissertation, New York University, New York, 1935.

<sup>16</sup> *The Teacher and Society*, First Yearbook of the John Dewey Society, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1937.

<sup>17</sup> Arthur Goldberg, *The Social-class Origins and Values of Teachers*, Doctoral Dissertation, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn., 1952.



require teachers to pledge individual support to the Constitution of the United States and to the constitution of the state in which they are working. Teachers in these states are required to do this just as are other public officers. Then, of course, there are the general sedition laws which apply to all citizens. Occasionally, as in other groups, there are persons whose views toward what we call "communism" are objectionable and unwanted. The remedy for this is twofold: (1) Screen out such people before granting them tenure status, eliminate them during the probationary period; and (2) if persons who have been granted tenure are found to have violated their oaths, sedition laws, or reasonable rules established by the board, such persons could be dismissed provided that the charges could be proved in court. If such charges could not be proved in court, the teacher, like any other citizen under the guarantees of our Constitution, should be considered innocent and should not be dismissed. If the real nature of the objection is that some people in America desire to change our basic law so that citizens are presumed guilty unless proved otherwise, and if tenure laws stand as blocks to such practice, there is even greater argument in favor of tenure laws. One of the greatest forward strides ever made by man was inclusion in the Constitution of the United States of the theory that a man is presumed to be innocent unless proof to the contrary has been presented to the satisfaction of a jury of his peers. It is to be hoped that this great contribution to the dignity of man is never reversed in this country.

The fear that enactment of tenure laws would cause teachers to be more able to improve their own economic status, to increase the fringe benefits to teachers, to upgrade the schools is interesting indeed. Those who hold such fears must surely hold that teachers are not entitled to salaries which will enable them to live like the "rest of the good people in the community";<sup>18</sup> they must believe that we do not need better schools for children; and they must believe that teachers should not enjoy fringe benefits such as sick leave and professional leaves. People who hold such beliefs are in the minority.

The fear that tenure laws will give teachers more freedom of inquiry means that there are some people who do not believe in freedom of inquiry, that there are those who would deny to citizens the right to think for themselves, that there are people who would force other citizens to think as they are told to think. Such people deny the fundamental thesis of our country. They believe in authoritarianism. Wherever authority reigns, thinking and inquiry are always suspected and obnoxious. If there is any word in our language which is synonymous with the verb "to think,"

<sup>18</sup> A barber named "Slats" Hudson once told the writer that in his opinion, "Teachers were entitled to live like the rest of the good people in the community and to participate in all the petty vices enjoyed by the rest of the good people in the community"—quite an interesting observation.



it is the verb "to inquire." People cannot be granted freedom to think unless they are also guaranteed freedom to inquire. Inquiry is the very foundation of thinking. Nearly 100 per cent of our people believe that children should be taught to think. This requires that our schools be staffed with teachers who can think. But to abridge the right of teachers to inquire denies them the right to think, and it denies the basic value that use of intelligence is essential to solving problems. If a teacher-tenure law will give teachers greater freedom of inquiry, such a law is good to the degree it increases freedom of inquiry.

Those who express the fear that teacher-tenure laws would result in giving teachers a greater part in determining the curriculum for children are antagonistic to such a procedure. Expression of such fears is proof that the holders of such fears have little faith in intelligence, that such people have more confidence in habit and tradition than in intelligent inquiry. If professionally educated people, trained to study problems of the school, are not to help in building and constructing the curriculum, who, pray tell, is? Do these objectors really desire that the uninformed and untrained should do the job without the aid and assistance of the professionally educated personnel? Objectors of this type certainly have little faith in people, they have little faith in intelligence as a device for solving problems, they have little faith in teachers, and they have little faith in boards of education. It is a fundamental principle of school administration that boards of education should never abdicate in favor of any group, including teachers, but this does not mean that teachers who have been professionally educated for their jobs should not be granted complete freedom to devise proposals to be submitted to boards of education for their scrutiny, study, appraisal, and action.

There are administrators, in ever-decreasing numbers, who do not trust teachers, who have little confidence in teachers. Such administrators are becoming less numerous every year. It is an old, old trick of authoritarian rule to "get them young, treat them rough, and tell them nothing," but such a trick is not democratic. Russia may resort to a purge, but in this country we would deny our leaders such rights. Men of little faith in people *must* play the role of a dictator or perish. If teacher-tenure laws will advance the day when fewer school administrators will be dictatorial, then tenure laws are good, not bad.

Fears on the part of some school administrators that tenure laws would force them to make decisions relative to the competency or incompetency of teachers and who honestly doubt their own ability to make such decisions are not real fears. There is no need for the existence of such fears because administrators who have tried it have found that giving teachers a share in evaluation of probationary teachers results in sound, satisfying action. Administrators who fear their own lack of ability to pass judgment



upon the competency of teachers are honest men. They are to be admired; they need help, and the help is waiting for them if they will utilize it. By establishing cooperative plans for evaluation of teaching services, such honest school leaders can contribute even more to the problem than those who believe they alone have the answers and proceed to deny the professional personnel any chance to assist.

Teachers who oppose tenure laws on the ground that discrimination would result during the probationary period are of one of two types: either they doubt their own competence and wish there were some way to hide it from others, or they distrust people in general. Neither type deserves the guarantees of tenure. No teacher should assume that holding a certificate or a college degree is proof of competence or proof that he is entitled to hold a teaching position willy-nilly. A teacher should be willing to be "tried out" and should recognize that if he is found wanting in the trial years, there are three alternatives: eliminate the deficiency, try elsewhere, or leave the profession entirely.

The fear that boards of education would engage in wholesale plans of releasing teachers before they acquired tenure has some foundation in fact. In the early stages of the application of tenure laws, this practice did occur. But boards of education have discovered that teachers with tenure give better service than those who do not have tenure. As a result of this discovery, the practice has virtually disappeared. Today there is no basis in fact for such a fear.

### *3. Pseudo Obstacles Which, in Reality, Are Proof of the Need for Tenure Laws*

- a. There is a fear that giving teachers tenure would result in less opportunity for organized pressure groups to function.
- b. There is a fear that teachers would play larger and larger roles as citizens in the community, that they might tend to cease being mice and become men and women.
- c. Some school administrators fear that enactment of teacher-tenure laws would deprive them of power; they fear that teachers would not be afraid to criticize or to analyze school problems and to make suggestions.
- d. Some administrators and board members are afraid to be "put on a spot," and hence they are afraid to face the reality of proving incompetence when necessary.
- e. There are teachers who have been appointed through political influence who know that their protection is "playing ball" with politicians. Such people see no use in tenure.
- f. There is a fear on the part of some politically motivated people that tenure would mean an end to favoritism and to reprisals.

The very existence of these obstacles is in itself an excellent argument for providing tenure for teachers. Political influence and pressure upon



school teachers, influence by organized pressure groups upon school teachers, denying teachers full rights of citizenship, treating teachers like pawns and slaves, refusing to accept the responsibilities of administration, appointing teachers through political influence, and pressurizing teachers by parents to give children good marks are as undesirable practices as stealing and lying. If teacher tenure will put a stop to such practices, the people should be most enthusiastically in support of it. Certainly this writer is.

Tenure laws should be enacted in every state that will provide teachers with contract rights to their positions so long as they are physically and emotionally fit to teach, so long as they continue to grow in service, so long as they conform to and abide by the reasonable rules of the board of education, the laws of the state, and Federal laws. Such teacher-tenure laws should be accompanied by other laws which govern certification, retirement, and the age limit beyond which a teacher cannot have tenure; by laws which specifically authorize boards of education to establish rules and regulations governing growth of teachers in service and physical and emotional health of teachers, and which authorize boards of education to enter into agreements with teachers' professional organizations for the purpose of establishing, cooperatively, criteria for determining personnel policies which shall govern the teaching staff.

The teacher-tenure law should provide for a probationary period of not less than two years or more than five years and should provide for semiannual evaluation of teachers on probation with written notice by registered mail to such teachers giving them an appraisal of their work up to that point. Such a law should provide, also, that if a teacher is not to be recommended for continued contractual status, the teacher should be notified of this at least 180 days in advance of notice of denial with reasons therefore, and that the teacher should be notified at least 60 days prior to the end of the probationary period that continued contractual status (tenure) is to be denied. In both warnings and notice a statement of reasons should be given. It should not be necessary, however, to prove such reasons, although the teacher should be guaranteed the right of a hearing before the board of education. It should be made easy for school authorities to deny tenure status to teachers who, in the judgment of the bodies governing the schools, are not good calculated risks. Such action should not be looked upon by the teacher as dismissal, because it is not. During the probationary period the teacher has annual contracts. Upon the completion and fulfillment of a one-year contract, both parties concerned have ended their obligations. There is nothing in the basic law of our nation which states that upon completion of one contract one party must offer a second party another contract. Dismissal



of a teacher can occur only during the contracted period. Refusal to issue a second contract does not constitute dismissal; it is a refusal to enter into another contract.

The tenure law should provide that after a teacher is given a continuing contract to the age specified in the law, such teacher could not be dismissed without (1) a warning indicating that the board of education intends to dismiss the teacher, which warning should be given at least 60 days in advance of notice of dismissal and should contain a written statement of the reasons therefore which should be one or more of the following: (a) failure to submit satisfactory evidence of being physically and emotionally fit to teach, (b) failure to submit satisfactory evidence of growth in service, (c) failure to abide by the reasonable rules of the board of education, (d) failure to obey the laws of the state, or (e) failure to obey the laws of the nation; and (2) a notice, in writing, by registered mail, which notice should be issued not earlier than 60 days from the date of warning and not later than 90 days before the close of the fiscal year subsequent to the issuance of such notice. The notice of dismissal should contain specific reasons and should inform the teacher that he has a right to employ counsel and to appear before the board of education in self-defense at a hearing which, at the discretion of the teacher, could be open to the public.

The tenure law should provide that the actions of the board of education in the dismissal of a teacher shall be reviewed by the courts, if the teacher so requests, and that the adjudication by the courts shall be binding upon both teacher and board of education (subject, of course, to appeal to higher courts).

The teacher-tenure law should require teachers who do not desire to continue in service in their positions to give at least 30 days' notice of such intention by registered letter and should specify that if a teacher terminates his services without giving such notice, upon request of the board of education with suitable proof thereof, the certificate of such a teacher could be revoked or suspended for a limited period of time by the state certificating agency.

The tenure law should also provide that a teacher given an extended leave of absence is obligated to return to the school district to teach unless excused by the board of education in writing by registered mail prior to the end of such leave. The law should provide that failure on the part of the teacher to conform to this stipulation could result in revocation of the teaching certificate by appropriate state authority on the ground that the teacher was guilty of unprofessional conduct. The law should make it mandatory that boards of education report all such cases to state certificating authorities within a reasonable period.

The teacher-tenure law should not be retroactive to the extent that



teachers in service at the time of enactment of the law automatically meet the requirement of serving a probationary period. It should provide that at the discretion of the board of education, the past service of a teacher could be counted as the probationary period, but it should enable boards of education to notify any teacher that he would be required to begin his probationary period as of the date of enactment of the law. This provision would prevent "freezing" into a school system everyone in service, regardless of competency.

The teacher-tenure law should be applicable to all personnel who are certified by the state agency that certifies teachers; it should include teachers, principals, supervisors, superintendents, school nurses, and others who have positions in the schools for which educational certificates are required.

The teacher-tenure law should provide that the salary of a teacher could not be reduced during the period of tenure unless all salaries have been reduced by use of some systematic and written plan (for example, 10 per cent cut to all employees).

The teacher-tenure law should provide that any teacher having administrative duties, such as principal, superintendent, supervisor, or assistants to these, could be relieved of such duties and assigned a position in the schools as a teacher provided the salary of such a person being relieved of such duties shall be that provided for in the salary schedule for a teacher with his training, experience, and growth in service (*e.g.*, a superintendent could be stripped of his administrative duties and assigned to teach in the high school at a salary which he would receive if the salary schedule were applied to him).

The teacher-tenure law should provide a contractual relation between the teacher and the board of education of the school district, it should specifically deny subsequent legislatures the right to amend any existing contractual relation, it should not contain any statement which could be construed as being purely a legislative policy, and it should specifically guarantee that subsequent legislative acts could not impair any then existing contractual relation between a teacher and a board of education.

This does not mean that tenure laws could not be changed, but it does mean that changes made in the law could not be retroactive, that changes would affect only those given tenure subsequent to the date of enactment of changes in the law.

The teachers of the nation have studied enactment of teacher-tenure laws since 1921, a period of over thirty years, and they advise and urge passage of appropriate teacher-tenure laws as a means for improving the quality of American education. The teachers themselves believe that tenure laws should be designed to protect competent teachers and to



provide a fair method for dismissing the unfit.<sup>19</sup> Thus teachers have taken the position of common sense, for the common sense of our people is that competent teachers should be protected and that incompetent teachers should be eliminated from our public schools.

School managers should be certain that teachers know their status and rights under the law, that they follow to the letter the procedure required by rules of the board of education and by the laws of the state, that they recognize and protest irregularities in teacher observance of procedure, that they recognize and protest irregularities in school-board procedure, and that when appeals are filed, they are filed with proper authorities and by proper procedure.

Enactment of teacher-tenure laws which meet the requirements herein set forth will be in the best interests of children, teachers, and the general public.

Teacher tenure poses some important and serious personnel problems which demand solution, or teachers, board members, administrators, and the general public are likely to disagree on the merits of tenure, with the teachers being pitted against the other groups mentioned. Important problems which arise are

1. Who should be granted tenure?
2. Who should decide whether or not a teacher should be granted tenure?
3. How can those who are to decide determine whether or not a teacher should be granted tenure?
4. What procedure should be followed for those who are denied tenure?
5. What about helping those who are denied tenure to continue as teachers elsewhere?

### *Who Should Be Granted Tenure?*

This is, indeed, a perplexing question. A teacher, to be granted tenure, should be one for whom the odds are great that he will continue to be a successful teacher. This is likely to be the case if

1. The teacher enjoys working with children.
2. The teacher has a well-defined philosophy which is consistent with democratic theory.
3. The teacher understands the learning process to such an extent that he can evaluate his own activity as a teacher in terms thereof.
4. The teacher is physically and mentally well.
5. The teacher has demonstrated that he can manage his classes.
6. The teacher is respected by his colleagues.
7. The teacher is liked and respected by pupils.
8. The teacher has adequate understanding of the subject areas used as media for promoting child growth.

<sup>19</sup> *Teacher Tenure Manual*, *op. cit.*, p. 7.



9. The teacher works cooperatively with the staff in attacking educational problems.
10. The teacher works well with parents and other members of the community.
11. The teacher is engaged in activities which are likely to result in growth.
12. The teacher has the character and reputation which warrants his continued service.
13. The teacher is eager to engage in cooperative efforts to evaluate the teaching-learning situation.
14. The teacher meets all the requirements of the laws of the state governing certification and growth in service.

### *Who Should Decide Whether or Not a Teacher Is to Be Granted Tenure?*

Every school should have a professional committee composed of teachers which has been authorized to examine the evidence concerning probationary teachers for the purpose of recommending action to the superintendent of schools. The superintendent of schools should, in cooperation with supervisors, principals, special counselors, psychologists, and others, act upon the recommendation of the teacher committee. If the recommendation of the teacher committee is approved, the superintendent should immediately recommend, in writing, to the board of education that the teacher involved be granted tenure.

If the recommendation of the teacher committee is not approved by the administrative reviewers, the superintendent should invite the teacher concerned and his principal to confer with him on the problem. The teacher should, at this hearing, be presented with the facts in the case and should be given an opportunity to present additional evidence or to request that his case be reviewed by the teacher committee while he is present. In some cases the teacher might be granted the privilege of nominating additional teachers to work with the teacher committee.

After the teacher's rehearing by the teacher committee, a second report should be sent to the superintendent of schools, who should, with his assistants, reexamine the report. If, at the close, the decision is favorable to the teacher, the action regarding notice previously described should be followed. If the report is unfavorable, the teacher should be notified in writing, by registered mail, that the superintendent will not recommend to the board of education that tenure be granted. Such a letter should give the teacher an opportunity to notify the board that he prefers not to be considered for reemployment, thus virtually resigning.

In any case, the superintendent should request the board of education either to acknowledge the request not to consider the reemployment of the teacher involved or to notify the teacher that he would not be reemployed and hence not granted tenure. In either case, the notice should be given by registered mail as required under the tenure laws of the state or under the local tenure rules and regulations.



Unless the laws of the state or the rules of the board of education require it, no hearing before the board should be granted unless recommended by the teacher committee on tenure, by the administrative council, and by the superintendent of schools.

*How Can Those Who Are Responsible Determine Who Is Qualified for Tenure?*

Every bit of evidence which is available should be utilized by the agents described above for formulating a judgment concerning recommending a teacher for tenure status. In Chapter 6 of this book several means for gathering usable evidence were suggested, as follows:

1. Evaluative instruments devised by the local teaching staff.
2. Record of participation in activities listed by the professional staff as being conducive to growth in service.
3. The National Teacher Examinations.
4. The Purdue *How I Teach* scale.
5. Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.
6. Evaluative reports from supervisors.
7. Evaluative reports from principals.
8. Self-evaluative instruments.
9. Evaluation by pupils.
10. Evaluation by parents.
11. Reports from the school physician.
12. Reports from the school psychologist.
13. Reports from the superintendent of schools.
14. Reports from community leaders concerning participation in community affairs.
15. Reports from the nonprofessional staff.
16. Other means devised by the local staff.

All of the available evidence should be assembled in a folder and a general summary prepared for each teacher under consideration so that the entire teacher committee, the administrative review board, the superintendent, and the board of education could see the whole picture for each teacher being considered. Every effort should be made to gather all the data essential to making a fair, objective, and intelligent judgment. The teacher who has been rejected by such careful methods would have little to complain about. The word "we" in the evaluation is significant and powerful.

If a teacher is denied tenure by the process described above, it is very likely that such a person should consider entering some field other than teaching. The superintendent should assume the responsibility of counseling such a teacher, pointing out his weaknesses. Furthermore, letters written to other school officials, if the teacher seeks employment else-



where as a teacher, should contain an honest report; there should be no attempt to hide the results of evaluation which culminated in refusal to grant tenure status. To act otherwise is unprofessional. However, the letters to other school officers should point out that the teacher may have been misjudged, that the teacher might have behaved differently in a different situation, that the teacher may have learned from the experience.

Dismissal of teachers who have tenure status is different because in such cases it is necessary that the evaluators are able to prove their charges, in court, if necessary. The procedure should be much the same, except that careful and thoughtful consideration should be given to the paramount importance of objective evidence. Since such dismissals are rare indeed, it seems quite impossible to set forth any additional specific procedure.

### SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Read the teacher-tenure law in your state or community (if there is one, of course) very carefully. Does it actually provide tenure, or does it merely establish policies?

2. What improvements should be made in the tenure law in your state if the recommendations in this chapter are observed?

3. If there is not tenure law in your state, get a copy of the tenure law in Illinois, Indiana, New Jersey, or some other state and read it carefully. Evaluate it.

4. If there is no tenure law in your state, why has no such law been enacted? Do not guess—find out, inquire.

5. Some teachers (for example, many in Connecticut) think their states have tenure laws for teachers when in reality no such laws exist. Are you in this situation? If you do not know, find out.

6. If teachers have tenure, why should they be expected to grow in service?

7. Reread the chapter on In-service Education of Teachers, and make a list of criteria for use by a board to determine whether a teacher on tenure had grown in service.

8. If you are opposed to teacher tenure after reading this chapter, state your reasons and supply evidence *drawn from research* to support your position.

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## CHAPTER 9 *Teacher Tensions Due to the World Political Scene*

For the first time in the history of the United States, this country faces preparation for war in times of peace as an accepted policy. For more than a century, citizens of the United States have assumed that during times of peace our energies could be devoted almost entirely to the consideration of problems of a purely domestic nature. Today observers of the world scene agree that a period of tension between the East and the West is likely to exist for many years. For the first time in our history, we are faced with continual preparation for war on a scale which staggers the imagination. The public schools are certain to be in the midst of this national tension, and as a result, teachers in the public schools will be seriously and potentially affected by it.

Melby listed twenty-five serious problems facing the schools at this moment,<sup>1</sup> any one of which is so difficult of solution that teachers could easily be badly frustrated in their efforts to find a satisfactory answer.

### TWENTY-FIVE PROBLEMS FACING THE SCHOOLS

1. How can schools find competent, well-qualified teachers to fill vacancies as they occur?
2. How can schools solve the problem of serious overcrowding in the schools?
3. How can schools solve the problem of scarcity of substitute teachers?
4. How can schools get essential materials for construction of sorely needed school buildings?
5. How can schools meet the ever-increasing demand by communities for additional services?
6. How can schools meet the needs of increasing numbers of pupils?
7. How can schools meet the pressures to increase the number of children assigned to a teacher?

<sup>1</sup> E. O. Melby, *American Education under Fire*, Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, New York, 1951.



8. How can schools cope with the problem of dropouts when employment opportunities for youth are increasing steadily?
9. How can schools meet the widespread criticism of rising costs in the schools?
10. How can schools meet the criticisms levied against the methods of teaching in our schools?
11. How can schools meet the criticisms levied against the teachers themselves?
12. How can schools find contractors to bid on school projects?
13. How can schools solve the problem of excessive turnover of uncertified as well as certified personnel?
14. How can schools raise standards for teachers in the face of acute shortage of teachers?
15. How can schools cope with the problem of losing male teachers to the armed forces?
16. How can schools teach children to appreciate, understand, and desire American democracy as the best form of government?
17. How can schools promote freedom of inquiry in the face of increasing demands by some influential people to indoctrinate rather than to educate?
18. How can schools meet the criticism that moral and spiritual values are being neglected in the schools?
19. How can schools meet the criticism that the schools are failing to teach children the three R's?
20. How can schools meet the criticism that modern schools are weak in "discipline"?
21. How can schools meet the criticism that some textbooks contain improper materials?
22. How can schools meet the criticism that teachers are not teaching "patriotism"?
23. How can schools meet the criticism that teachers are overemphasizing extracurricular activities and fads or frills?
24. How can schools combat forces which are seeking to undermine the whole system of free, tax-supported public education?
25. How can schools combat thought control?

Not all of these twenty-five problems have equal significance from the point of view of teacher morale, although each of them is being felt by teachers as a frustrating, disturbing problem. Those problems which seem to be most important from the point of view of personnel management are

1. How can schools meet the criticism pertaining to methods of teaching, teachers themselves teaching moral and spiritual values, lack of emphasis upon the three R's, lack of discipline, use of improper materials, and emphasis upon newer activities?
2. How can schools combat the forces which are seeking to destroy free public education as an instrument of democratic government?
3. How can the schools combat thought control?



During the depression days of 1930 to 1935, the American people declared an open season on banks and bankers. Many teachers today are afraid that there are those in the United States who would like to declare an open season on public school teachers and upon public schools.

School teachers, school leaders, and people of the communities in which public schools are located have come to believe that the free public school, supported by taxation, controlled by lay boards of education elected by the people, and open without discrimination to children of all faiths has become an established part of the American way of life. Most of these people would ridicule any notion that the public schools should be controlled by political parties, vested economic or labor interests, or a church. In nearly all areas the public schools are considered to be open to all the children of all the people, regardless of race, color, creed, or economic condition. Notable exceptions, of course, exist, but these shortcomings are regional in character and are not inherent defects of the public school system.

The very fact that teachers, school leaders, and the general public usually take the public schools for granted is one of the greatest problems of our time. Military and naval officers were "singing at the well" when the Japs hit Pearl Harbor. Many people of Pasadena were complacently unaware of potential organized attacks on public education in that city. Literally thousands of public school teachers are unable to believe or properly estimate the potential attacks upon public education today. Thousands of loyal citizens who are not completely satisfied with the programs in the schools are blithely ignorant of the fact that powerful forces are lying in wait to ambush the public schools when and if opportunities arise.

In the face of the problems which exist, school leaders and school teachers can ill afford to be complacent or to attempt to solve the problems by appeasement. Every person engaged in the work of public education has an obligation to make his own personal energies, intelligence, and action available to the people of America in a combined and militant effort to preserve the American public schools as essential to the very success of the United States as a free nation.

Healthy minds enjoy and seek opportunities to wrestle with the multitudinous problems that arise in a complicated social order. To such minds every problem is challenge to a victorious solution. This is one of the basic reasons why the author asserted early in this volume that every program for dealing with the personnel problems of teachers should be conducive to mental health.

One thing seems certain: There must be a significant reawakening among educational leaders regarding their own roles. Democracy cannot be guaranteed by legal enactment. No laws, no rules, no regulations,



no fixation of authority can force arbitrary administrators to employ democratic processes. Democracy is essentially a spiritual attribute, and it cannot be maintained as a method of social control unless school leaders are willing to seek and to accept the kind of mutual relationships which will result in pooling the intelligence of the teaching personnel in the solution of problems which face the schools.

School superintendents, principals, and teachers in cooperation with interested citizens in every community should examine the structure, organization, curriculum, and personnel practices in the schools to discover ways and means for improving them.

The first task confronting the professional staff is the classification of goals and purposes of the public schools. Professional workers and laymen need to ask themselves questions such as these:

1. Should the schools seek to develop within the child increased competency in the art of communication? What are the means of communication today? Are they the same as they were a century ago?
2. Should the schools develop within each child a strong sense of civic responsibility? Have the changes in social structure altered our meanings of civic responsibility? What are the implications of the changes in practice?
3. Should the schools meet the needs of those who expect to continue their education in colleges and universities? How many children are likely to go to college? What percentage of those who enter the public schools are involved? Should the schools ignore the needs of children who are not going to college?
4. Should the schools meet the needs of those who will take jobs after they complete their work in the public schools? What percentage of the children are among this group? What sorts of jobs are they likely to seek?
5. Should the schools provide experiences by means of which children can make better choices regarding selection of an occupation upon completing work in the public schools?
6. Should the schools encourage and develop within each child a keen desire to learn? How can this best be done? Does our present program achieve this goal?
7. Should the schools seek to develop within each child wholesome attitudes with respect to such matters as health, leisure, character, inquiry, tolerance, moral values, and ethical standards?
8. Should the schools develop within each child a respect for human personality?
9. Should the schools seek to develop within each child a strong desire for social justice? What is meant by social justice? What is included?
10. Should the schools seek to develop among children increased skill in working with groups for the purpose of coming to common agreement?
11. Should the schools seek to develop within each child a strong belief in the principles of democracy as we find them expressed in our own basic law?
12. Should the schools teach the child to dislike and abhor totalitarian methods of social control?



13. Should the schools teach children that the American economic system, sometimes called capitalism is the best economic system?
14. Should the schools encourage children to examine the assumptions of communism and fascism for the purposes of comparison with our democratic form of government?
15. Should the public schools employ teachers who are committed to any form of totalitarian control?
16. Should the public schools employ teachers who have strong religious, racial, or color prejudices?
17. Should all children, regardless of the economic status of their parents, be guaranteed reasonable equal rights to an education in the public schools?
18. Should all children, regardless of their intellectual ability be guaranteed some form of education at public expense?
19. Should all children, regardless of color be guaranteed reasonably equal rights to an education at public expense?
20. Should religious dogma of any kind be taught in our public schools?
21. Who are the real enemies of the public schools? Why do they oppose public education? What are their methods?

The answers to these questions should be diligently sought. Teachers, school administrators, parents, taxpayers, and community leaders should be requested to make themselves unmistakably clear on all of these issues because the first phase of making a decision with respect to a problem is to clarify the common purposes of those who work in the schools and of those who finance the schools and elect members of boards of education. Before the problems facing public education can be adequately solved, communities must search for common ground from which to launch their examination of conflicting notions regarding how schools should be managed, financed, and controlled. No dependable plan of action can be established without public consent, because the very essence of democratic control is public consent. The teachers and the board of education may agree, but unless the people of the community also understand the issues at stake and the plans of action for meeting the issues, the public will eventually rebel, and even minor gains may be lost. Policy for the schools must be a public policy; it cannot be an administrator's policy or the teachers' policy or the board of education's policy.

The American public is ready and waiting for the kind of cooperative action which will lead to more complete public understanding of the problems of the public schools. Educational leaders should take steps to mobilize the intelligence of the professional staff in the development of plans of action for engaging the public in cooperative efforts to examine the purposes and goals of public education. This procedure will do more to relieve the frustration which causes low morale among teachers than anything else school leaders can do. The way to defeat fear is to attack the problems which cause fear. The way to relieve



teachers of their fears and frustrations arising out of tensions of our times is to encourage teachers to take active part in community attacks upon the very problems which produce the fears and frustrations.

It is not enough for teachers and the public to seek answers regarding what the schools should do. They must, after agreement on this first set of questions, enter the second phase of the problem, which is surveying and assessing the existing state of affairs to determine the degree to which the schools are now doing what the community agrees they should do. These are scientific days, and anyone who has even mildly caught the spirit of modern science will know that any sound plan for determining a course of action must include a survey of pertinent existing conditions.

1. What are the facts about our school in terms of the agreements we have reached? Are we sure of our facts?
2. Do our schools really do those things which we believe they should do?
3. Do we know how to get the facts? Are our educational leaders and our teachers adequately trained in research techniques necessary to get the salient facts?
4. As superintendent of schools, do I know how to study an educational problem? Do I know enough about statistics to analyze data? Do I know what data are needed? Do I understand the theory of sampling?
5. Do we as a professional staff know enough about scientific methods of problems solving to be more than amateurs? Are we limited in our own capacity for service to the community because we are ignorant regarding research techniques essential to analyzing and surveying our own situation?
6. Do we know how to marshal and mobilize the data we collect so that their implications are clear? Are we professionals in this? Or are we rank amateurs?
7. Do we know enough about the nature of the learning process to tell whether our methods are likely to achieve the goals upon which we have agreed? Can we actually square our actions with the research in learning? Or are we victims of prejudice and habit and quite amateurish in our approach to this problem?
8. Do we know how to survey and analyze the community for the purpose of discovering the needs of the community educationally? Or are we so unprepared for the job that we rely upon the opinion of a few important and influential people?
9. Are we so unprepared for the task at hand that we have developed inferiority complexes about our roles in society? Have we withdrawn from society because we do not know how to attack our own problems?
10. Are we so concerned with our own comforts and with the details of our own little jobs that we have completely lost sight of our basic responsibilities to the community and to public education?
11. Do we belong to teachers' organizations which are more concerned with teacher rights than with teacher obligations?
12. Have we made the mistake of seeking master's degrees so that we can get



larger salaries without concerning ourselves about acquiring those understandings and skills which would enable us to play our important roles as students of educational problems in our communities?

These are important questions which the professional staff in every school system must face if we are to solve the personnel problems arising out of the state of affairs in the world today. If we refuse to face them, we cannot complain about being engulfed in an avalanche of public scepticism and ill will which might wreck the public schools and in so doing undermine the very foundations of the democracy upon which the United States of America is built.

Many of the criticisms now leveled at the public schools are valid criticisms, and as a profession, we must learn to know the difference between a valid criticism and a spurious one. As a profession, we have frequently made the mistake of dusting off all questioning attitudes about the schools by exclaiming that the possessors of such attitudes are surely members of some "front organization" or victims of some such group. This may or may not be true. Many people are seriously in doubt about the effectiveness of public education in terms of the goals they believe are important. As a profession, we must learn how to distinguish between honest questioning and subversive attacks.

There is a general belief, that the public schools should do a better job of teaching children how to write, read, and understand English prose. Because many people believe this, there has been a clamor by teachers and laymen alike for greater mastery of the intricacies of English grammar. As a result, the people may demand increased emphasis upon the intricacies of English grammar. Unfortunately, many school leaders term this sort of thing an attack upon public education. Many groups have made defensive capital out of just such attacks. Instead of condemning those who thus question the methods of the schools as persons who are enemies of public education, we have an obligation as professional people to accept the challenge and reveal to the public the findings of research with respect to the problem. Actually, no evidence has ever been presented which will prove that the teaching of the intricacies of English grammar will have any appreciable effect upon the ability of the learner to write better, read better, or understand more fully. The best grammarians are conspicuously not the best speakers or best writers of English. The following is quoted from the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*:

The following specific statements concerning formal grammar seem to be supported by the best opinion, practice, and *experimental evidence*.<sup>2</sup>

1. The disciplinary value which may be attributed to formal grammar is negligible.

<sup>2</sup> Italics added.



2. No more relation exists between the knowledge of grammar and the application of the knowledge in a functional language situation than exists between any two totally different and unrelated subjects.
3. In spite of the fact that the contribution of the knowledge of English grammar to achievement in foreign language has been its chief justification in the past, *the experimental evidence does not support this conclusion.*
4. The study of grammar has been justified because of its possible contribution to reading skills, *but the evidence does not support this conclusion.*
5. The contribution of grammar to the formation of sentences in speech and in writing has doubtless been exaggerated.
6. Grammar is difficult if not impossible to teach to the point of practical application.
7. Formal and traditional grammar contains many items which if learned to the point of application could not have any serious effect on the learner's language usage.
8. Many grammatical rules have been stated which have little or no basis in acceptable speech and writing.
9. Much of the grammar based upon analogy, history, logic, or an ideally perfect language may be disregarded.
10. The only valid grammatical generalization must be based upon acceptable language practices. Current usage furnishes the only legitimate standards.<sup>2</sup>

The point is this: Instead of condemning the people who ask the schools to increase their emphasis upon the intricacies of English grammar, as professional workers we should take steps to show the people that mastery of those intricacies is not likely to cause children to achieve the goals the people seek for their children. Furthermore, as professional people, we should begin to discover ways in which the goal of greater ability in writing, reading, and understanding modern English prose could be better achieved. One of our greatest faults is that we do not know the answers either—we have frequently been so enamored of our own ways of doing things that we become convinced that any question regarding our procedures must be the result of evil intent by subversive agents in the community.

School superintendents, principals, and educational leaders in general have an obligation to focus the attention of the entire professional personnel upon the research concerning our methods of teaching in the public schools. *Prejudice is largely the process of being down on something because one is not up on it.* Certainly this has been the case with many professional personnel as well as with many laymen.

One of the most common criticisms of the public schools, for example, is that the schools do a much poorer job of teaching reading than they

<sup>2</sup> Quoted by permission, from Harry A. Greene, "English—Language, Grammar and Composition," in W. S. Monroe (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 393, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1950.



did ten, twenty, or fifty years ago. In fact, the leading attacks upon education have centered around three major charges:

1. The schools do not teach reading properly.
2. The schools cost too much.
3. "There are too many fads and frills."<sup>4</sup>

Yet in 1952, Gerberich, director of the bureau of Educational research, University of Connecticut, concluded, after a most thorough and complete study of thirty-two basic research inquiries, that

1. Today's schools are just as efficient as the schools of the past in teaching pupils the basic skills of reading.
2. Modern progressive schools are just as efficient as conventional or traditional schools in teaching pupils the basic reading skills.
3. Pupils from activity and progressive schools do just as much in their subsequent educational careers involving reading as do pupils from conventional or traditional schools.
4. Reading instruction can be improved.
5. Critics of modern methods of teaching reading engage in wishful thinking.<sup>5</sup>

One of the best ways in which teachers can regain their composure when forced to listen to or read about attacks on public education is to become familiar with available research. Unfortunately, many teachers never study research; many never read research articles; many know little if anything about research. Actually many teachers are still teaching in ways which they were taught without ever once asking whether or not such methods are actually effective for achieving the purposes which they themselves believe are important.

Scientists have spent decades working on the problem of finding a substance which would destroy noxious weeds without destroying desirable plant life. To a remarkable degree, they have succeeded. Scientists turned their energies to location of a substance which would effectively destroy flies, mosquitoes, and other objectionable insects. To a remarkable degree they have succeeded. Another effort has succeeded too; scientists have presented the world with the A-bomb and the H-bomb, which can be used to exterminate men.

The fear which eats at the very foundations of men everywhere as the result of the latest achievement of men of science has caused large numbers of people to ask for a return to teaching the "eternal verities" in the schools. These fearful people, not knowing where to turn and located all around us, are pointing accusing fingers at the schools. They are saying that the schools have become "material" in their outlook,

<sup>4</sup> See E. O. Melby, *American Education under Fire*, Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, New York, 1951.

<sup>5</sup> J. Raymond Gerberich, "The First of the Three R's," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 33(7): 345-349 (March, 1952).



that the schools are not concerned with teaching children the spiritual values which will save men from destruction. Out of this fear and out of these accusations have come assertions from many quarters that the schools should teach religion, that our whole concept of separation of church and state is an evil one, and that the public schools should either be abandoned in favor of church-operated schools or that the concept of separation of church and state should be abandoned.

This conflict is one of the major causes of personnel problems in our public schools today. Unfortunately, it has not been faced squarely by many professional groups of teachers or by educational leaders in our public schools. Teachers and administrators are afraid to discuss the problem, much less to focus intelligent inquiry upon it. The more common practice is to adopt a hush-hush attitude and hope that something will happen to relieve the tension.

The problem is profoundly confused by the attempt on the part of some to equate dogma with religion, to equate membership in one church with Christianity, to equate religion itself with Christianity. Thus the ardent Catholic asserts that to teach religion in the schools means that the schools should teach the Catholic dogma, the Christian asserts that to teach religion in the schools means to teach the Christian faith, not the Jewish faith, and the arch conservative in our country thinks that to teach religion in the schools means to teach the letter and the law of his religious beliefs, which established the "rightness of existing states of affairs."

Teachers need to recall one of the most significant of all statements made to men, namely,

For I was hungered, and ye gave me meat: I was thirsty, and ye gave me drink: I was a stranger, and ye took me in: naked, and ye clothed me: I was sick, and ye visited me: I was in prison, and ye came unto me.

Then shall the righteous answer him, saying, Lord, when saw we thee an hungered, and fed thee? or thirsty, and gave thee drink? When saw we thee a stranger, and took thee in? Or naked, and clothed thee? Or when saw we thee sick, or in prison, and came unto thee?

And the King shall answer unto them saying, "Verily I say unto you, inasmuch as ye have done it unto one of the least of these my brethren, ye have done it unto me."<sup>6</sup>

By the standard expressed in the quotation above, teachers are charged with helping each generation of children to see its responsibilities to society more clearly so that it, too, can contribute to the basic needs of men. Religion may mean destruction of ignorance, establishment of systems of social control which make use of violence unnecessary, increasing the opportunities for the creation and enjoyment of

<sup>6</sup>Matt. 25:35-40.



beauty, elimination of intolerance and bigotry, substituting a philosophy of living for rituals and symbols, improving our methods of solving problems so that intelligence plays a paramount role, extending mutuality to all areas of human effort, and promoting health of people.

In spite of the fact that teachers as a group are fundamentally concerned with the development of wholesome ethical values among children with whom they work, they are being continuously besieged by people to teach a particular point of view, a dogma.

It is essential that teachers in a public school system give serious thought to their own commitments to ethical principles and values. Each teacher needs to ask himself such questions as the following, and each group of teachers needs to seek, as a group, common bases for action based upon the answers to these questions:

1. Why am I in the teaching profession? What are my purposes and goals?
2. Does my teaching lead to a fuller understanding by the children with whom I work of how to live wisely and well?
3. Do I conduct myself so that children look upon me as a companion in pursuit of learning? Or do they look at me as an autocrat?
4. Do I teach in such a way that the children with whom I work become increasingly curious and increasingly eager to learn?
5. Do I have some central convictions about the meaning and value of life which transcend ritual, dogma, and symbolism?
6. Is my philosophy of life real, or is it mere verbalism? Do I know where I stand on basic socio-moral issues? Or have I accepted some dogma or verbalism without really understanding its meaning?
7. Am I seriously concerned with ministering to the needs of children? Or am I chiefly concerned with forcing children to memorize facts which I have learned?
8. Have I made a positive commitment to any basic values which could be used in evaluating my own actions as a teacher?
9. What, in life, is of greatest worth? Have I made a commitment?
10. Do I strive to teach in such a way as to cause children to make a commitment to democratic values?

Those who are responsible for the management of public schools cannot escape the responsibility for arranging affairs so that the teachers in the schools can come to agreement upon basic values and ethical principles which should operate as controls of policy making in the school system. To evade the issue is not being neutral at all; on the contrary, to evade the issue is pseudo neutrality; it is actually taking a position against arriving at common agreements of this sort. Courage, tact, intelligence, patience, and seriousness of purpose are essential—and the public schools need leadership which has these characteristics. Only teachers who are well grounded in their own convictions and loyalties can protect the institution of free public education in a free nation. Only teachers



who have basic convictions concerning democracy, freedom of inquiry, and loyalty to the great American dream can win the support of others to the cause of freedom.

The public schools belong to the people—not to the teachers. The people have the right to control the policies of the schools. And teachers have the responsibility of supplying the kind of community leadership which will result in community organization for the support of public schools. To this end, the professional people should

1. Arouse citizens' interests in the public schools by every professional means available.
2. Supply the citizens with adequate, complete, unbiased information about the schools.
3. Invite citizens to work with teachers in determining the purposes and goals of the schools.
4. Invite citizens to work with teachers in evaluating the schools in terms of the common goals and purposes.
5. Enlarge citizen participation to include those who are critical of the schools.
6. Examine the views and opinions of the critics, and secure data on the problems which attract the criticism.
7. Seek common sense and agreement among citizens and teachers regarding the merits of criticisms.
8. Utilize all available resources for studying the problems: libraries, teachers' organizations, colleges, universities, state departments of education, citizens' groups, research, expert opinion, and others.
9. Encourage active participation in the PTA.
10. Utilize the community organizations such as women's clubs, churches, service clubs, American Association of University Women, and others.
11. Support organizations affiliated with the state and national citizens' commissions for the public schools.
12. Keep people informed of the subversive potentialities of such organizations as
  - a. Friends of the Public Schools of America.
  - b. National Council for American Education.
  - c. American Education Association.
  - d. Church League of America.
  - e. Conference of Small Business Organizations, Committee on Education.
  - f. Employees Association of Chicago.
  - g. National Association of Pro-America.
13. Encourage citizens to
  - a. Visit the schools.
  - b. Read school reports.
  - c. Attend meetings of the board of education.
  - d. Become informed at voting time.
  - e. Join the PTA.



- f. Offer their services to school program.
  - g. Organize citizens' study groups.
  - h. Scrutinize all strangers in the community who attack the schools.
14. Encourage citizens' groups to
- a. Include business, labor, agriculture; people of different races, colors, and creeds; and residents from different geographic areas.
  - b. Hold open meetings.
  - c. Avoid affiliation with political parties.
  - d. Seek cooperation with the board of education.
  - e. Cooperate with other organizations.
  - f. Keep activities informal.
15. Encourage boards of education to
- a. Enlist public interest in the schools.
  - b. Develop systematic means for keeping the people informed of their acts.
  - c. Encourage citizens and teachers to attend board meetings.
  - d. Welcome suggestions from the PTA, citizens' groups, and professional personnel.
  - e. Cooperate with the PTA in studies of the school.
  - f. Make use of professional personnel in studying problems.
  - g. Keep informed through personal reading of professional literature.
16. Encourage teachers to
- a. Welcome parents and citizens who visit schools.
  - b. Join and improve teachers' organizations to the end that they will be more professional.
  - c. Participate in PTA activities.
  - d. Participate in community organizations.
  - e. Invite citizens to participate in curriculum planning.
  - f. Teach children about the American system of public education.

Freedom is not something which can be forced upon people; neither is it something which can be handed to people as a gift. It is something which can be possessed only by people who participate in acquiring it. Similarly, the only way in which teachers can find freedom from the tensions due to the world political scene is to earn it by seeking, with others, cooperatively developed solutions to the problems of free public education. To do this is the fundamental challenge to educational leadership today.

What can the administrator do about all this? The answer, though short, is far from simple. He must supply the kind of leadership which will encourage the professional staff and the people of the community to engage in the sixteen types of activity described above. The administrator should play the role of the intellectual catalytic agent and should be on the lookout for ways of giving members of his staff intellectual, moral, and actual responsibilities for carrying out a program which is essentially education of the public as well as education of the children. He should take such action as to guarantee that teachers, nonprofessional



employees, students, parents, and members of the board of education are continuously communicating with each other and with the general public, inspiring others with his own energy and enthusiasm for the basic task at hand.

The relief of teacher tensions will be directly proportional to the amount of teacher-pupil-community concern with the problems of the local school.

### SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. What are the most trying problems facing your school today? What steps have been taken by teachers in your community to find solutions? By administrators? By citizens?
2. Select some criticism of public education which you have heard, and locate research which bears upon that problem. Summarize the evidence and prepare a statement which could be used by the schools for replying to the critics.
3. Make a list of citizens' groups in your community which are interested in and which support public education.
4. Why do some teachers oppose membership in the NEA?
5. Make a list of your own convictions concerning the public schools.
6. Should the public schools teach religion? Why?

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## CHAPTER 10    *Transfers, Promotions, and Dismissals*

As a young superintendent, the writer was faced with many interesting situations. One of these concerned the transfer of two teachers. These teachers were completing their probationary periods prior to being employed with tenure status. According to the rules of the board of education and the laws of the state, the superintendent was required to recommend reappointment or to recommend that the board refuse to renew the contracts of the teachers involved. One teacher taught children in the first grade of the North School; the other taught children in the third grade in the Lincoln School. Neither teacher, in the opinion of the superintendent, had established such a record as to warrant recommendation that tenure be granted, so he decided to recommend that the board of education should refuse to renew the contracts for the third year. He talked with the teachers, and to his surprise they both agreed that it would be unwise to recommend tenure.

When the superintendent made his recommendation to the board of education, the president of the board asked an interesting question, namely, "What would happen if these two teachers were exchanged?" This possibility had never occurred to the young, relatively inexperienced superintendent, but the question was discussed at some length. Finally, the superintendent reminded the board that the tenure laws of the state provided that in the case of a beginning teacher, the board could, by a formal vote, extend the probationary period from two to three years. After further discussion, the board of education passed a resolution extending the probationary period from two to three years for the two teachers involved, and directed the superintendent of schools to discuss the matter of "exchange" with the two teachers.

When the action of the board was presented to the teachers, both seemed very pleased; both said they would like to try the change in assignment.

Interestingly, both teachers established excellent records the following



year in their new assignments, and each was granted tenure status at the end of the third year of service.

The NEA believes that "it would seem to be an unnecessary concern with administrative details for the board of education to take action when teachers are transferred, without change of rank or salary, from one teaching post to another within a schools system."<sup>1</sup> With this, the writer cannot agree. It would be much wiser to assert that all those who can make an intelligent contribution to the problems of transfer of teachers should be given an opportunity to do so. If the board of education can make no such contribution, it should have no part in the solution of problems of transfer, but in many communities, particularly in smaller ones, the board of education may be able, as in the case cited, to help devise an appropriate plan of action.

Furthermore, the author objects strenuously to cataloguing "transfers" as "administrative details." Transfers are very important administrative problems; they are far more important than mere detail. To teachers, transfers are often extremely crucial matters.

Many teachers are made unhappy and ineffective for years as a result of unwise and inappropriate transfers. Others are transformed from poor teachers to excellent teachers by transfer. When the welfare and success of teachers are thus involved, transfer of teachers cannot be classified as an administrative detail.

In a large school system, a superintendent of schools transferred a successful junior high school teacher in the field of mathematics to a position of teacher of general science in another junior high school within the city. The results were disastrous. The teacher failed miserably in the new assignment and was so embittered that he resigned at the end of the year. This former teacher is now actively engaged in an effort to remove the superintendent of schools on the ground that he is arbitrary and dictatorial in his dealings with teachers. The merits of the assertions of the resigned teacher are not important here. What is important is the fact that transfer of the teacher was no minor administrative detail—it was a problem of major importance to the teacher and to the superintendent.

Requests for the transfer of a teacher can be initiated by several persons or groups.

1. By the superintendent of schools.
2. By supervisors or consultants.
3. By principals.
4. By the teacher himself.
5. By teachers in the building.

<sup>1</sup> *Teacher Personnel Practices 1950-51*, NEA Research Bulletin 30, p. 7, February, 1952.



6. By parents.
7. By boards of education.

Regardless of the source of the request, it should go to the superintendent of schools rather than to the board of education. Once the superintendent has been confronted with a request for transfer, he should analyze the problem carefully, seeking answers to the following questions:

1. Why should the teacher be transferred?
2. Where should he be assigned?
3. What are likely to be the outcomes of transfer?
4. Who desires the transfer?

Transfers frequently cause deep emotional reactions among teachers. This fact should be recognized by school administrators. The basic feeling of need for security is often associated with familiar surroundings, and even though a situation may not be entirely satisfactory to a teacher, any change into the unknown may cause distress far in excess of that anticipated by administration. Others look upon transfer as an indication that their work has not been entirely satisfactory. Such feelings of insecurity or of failure, especially if they follow long periods of employment in one teaching assignment, cause transfers to be feared by many teachers. A third, and often overlooked, reaction comes from individuals who have put great energy into the development of a particular climate in the class situation, department, or building. The interests of such teachers are likely to be so deeply embedded in the development of their plans that transfer creates feelings very similar to the feelings of a person who watches a business he has built from the ground up consumed in flames. There are, of course, teachers whose roots never go deep, who never develop strong loyalties to any one group or situation, and who are quite willing to transfer from spot to spot in a school system.<sup>2</sup>

In general, transfers may be grouped under four headings, as follows:

1. Voluntary transfers—cases involving teachers who request transfers for such reasons as (a) improving transportation problems, (b) personal conflicts with teachers, (c) personal conflicts with principals, and (d) dissatisfaction with teaching assignment.
2. Necessary transfers—cases involving (a) sharp changes in enrollment, (b) changes in administrative organization, (c) changes in building facilities, and (d) others.
3. Advisable transfers—cases involving (a) the professional good of the teacher, (b) the best interests of children, (c) the improvement of professional morale in a school building, and (d) improvement of community relations.
4. Policy transfers—in some schools policies have been developed by the school

<sup>2</sup> The writer is indebted to Cornelia Staples of the public schools of West Hartford, Conn., for the above analysis.



authorities, or in a few cases by the staff itself, designed to rotate teachers on a regular schedule, permitting no teacher to teach for more than three or four years in one assignment or building.

The most important step to take in solving the problems of transfer of teachers is to request the teachers in a school system to develop a clear statement of principles and policies which should govern transfers, to submit such a statement to the board of education through the superintendent of schools, and to request the board of education to adopt an official, legal statement of policy governing transfers which could be successfully administered by the administrative officers of the school system. Unfortunately, many boards of education have never established policies governing transfers but have left such matters to the superintendent of schools. In other situations, the board of education has adopted policies governing transfers which have been developed by the chief administrative officer without reference to the serious thinking of the professional staff.

School administrators will discover that administering policies concerning transfers of teachers will be a much easier task if the policies have been developed jointly by the professional staff and by the board of education. Furthermore, they will discover that many of the emotional problems involved in transfers will melt away if teachers themselves have been given a large part in the development of policies concerning them.

In West Hartford, Conn., teacher transfers are made chiefly on a voluntary basis, and the plan has been quite satisfying to teachers. Openings are well publicized, and dates are established for requests for transfers.<sup>3</sup>

Voluntary transfers usually present relatively few problems, but transfers based upon necessity and professional advisability frequently cause difficulties. Transfers should not come as a surprise to a teacher and should not be based upon convenience. Before a transfer is made, all the facts which are pertinent should be assembled. Information from supervisors, principals, other teachers, parents, and children should be brought to bear upon the problem. The teacher concerned should have a free opportunity to express his preferences and feelings.

It is fundamental that the policies developed should be mutually understood by all members of the professional staff. To ensure this, the staff should have a large part in their development. The whole structure of policies should rest, primarily, upon the proposition that transfers are made for the benefit of children, secondarily, upon the proposition that transfers are to be made for the best interests of teachers, and, lastly, upon the desire to effect a more desirable administrative plan.

<sup>3</sup> Cornelia Staples, *Transfers in the West Hartford Schools*, Master's paper, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn., January, 1953.



### *Promotions*

Teachers are promoted to department heads, to assistant principals, and to supervisory positions; assistant principals are promoted to principalships; principals of small schools are promoted to like positions in larger schools; and there are many other types of promotions. Since most of the employees in the schools are classroom teachers, large numbers of the profession have their eyes upon other assignments which can be looked upon as promotions.

Some teachers look forward to assignment as guidance counselors, directors of special services, supervisors, principals, and other special agents because the salaries for such assignments are usually more attractive. About one teacher out of four seems to believe that special positions which are accompanied by higher salaries should be assigned exclusively to those who are already employed in the system. Three teachers out of five seem to feel that the assignments mentioned should go to those persons who are best qualified without regard to service within the system.<sup>4</sup> Rural teachers seem to be more inclined to give outsiders a chance; in fact, the number of teachers willing to give outsiders a chance seems to be inversely proportional to the size of the city or community in which the schools are located.

Unfortunately, many school systems have no established policies or plans for handling promotions when opportunities arise. In 1951 nearly 85 per cent of the teachers in over 1,500 cities indicated that in their own school systems there were no established procedures for handling problems of promotion. Most of the teachers felt that promotions were handled on an individual, informal basis by the administrator; only 16 per cent reported that promotions were made according to a well-developed plan which involved submission of credentials, examination of credentials, or establishing promotional lists. The existence of any type of real planning seemed to be directly proportional to the size of the school system; in the largest cities three-fourths of the schools reported definite plans of some sort, while in cities of less than 5,000 only 9 per cent reported any attempt at developing careful plans.

There has been a trend toward giving preference to teachers who have served the school system when better-paying positions are filled. In 1945, in one study, 27 per cent of the schools reported that people within the system were given almost exclusive rights to positions which might be considered promotions. In 1951 this percentage was 62. In 1945, 61 per cent of the schools gave "insiders" and "outsiders" equal chances; in 1951, the percentage dropped to 37. Apparently, school authorities have dis-

<sup>4</sup> *The Teacher Looks at Personnel Administration*, NEA Bulletin 23, p. 125, December, 1945.



played a marked tendency toward promoting teachers in the system to better-paying positions.<sup>5</sup>

Wiles<sup>6</sup> believes that one of the more promising methods for building staff morale is that of promoting from within the ranks wherever possible. Miller and Spalding<sup>7</sup>, however, contend that no school system should fill all its administrative and supervisory positions from within because such practice "produces intellectual sterility." But they also assert that no school should fill all its administrative and supervisory positions from without because such practice "frustrates the good people on the staff and makes them feel that there is no opportunity to get ahead by staying in the system."

These facts indicate that there is a great need for establishment of clear-cut policies to govern promotions. Such policies should be thoroughly understood by teachers within the system and by those who might be considered but who are not in the system. The needed understanding is much more likely to accrue if the professional staff has a large part in the development of the policies. Teachers, principals, supervisors, superintendents, and boards of education should work together to develop principles, policies, and plans of action for granting promotions.

The selection of persons to fill administrative and supervisory posts should be done with great care. Carefully drawn specifications should be prepared, candidates should be screened according to the specifications, and all professional personnel affected should have an opportunity to share in both of these operations. Since nearly 85 per cent of the teachers in a rather large sample indicated that there were no organized plans of procedure for filling such positions, it is evident that there is a great need for more constructive leadership toward solving promotional problems.

Promotions in the public schools usually carry added prestige, increased salaries, and additional authority. Whenever promotions come solely from above, frictions and threats to personalities are likely to damage the program of the school, interfere with the teacher growth, and rob children of the best services of teachers.<sup>8</sup>

Theoretically, promotions should go to those who have proved themselves to be best qualified for the promotion. The difficulty arises when the question is asked, "Who is to decide upon the qualifications?" The best answer, it seems to this writer, is "the whole staff working together." There is no reason why members of the professional staff, teachers, prin-

<sup>5</sup> *Teacher Personnel Practices 1950-51*, p. 50.

<sup>6</sup> Kimball Wiles, *Supervision for Better Schools*, p. 59, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1951.

<sup>7</sup> Van Miller and W. B. Spalding, *The Public Administration of American Schools*, p. 337, The World Book Company, New York, 1952.

<sup>8</sup> Norton R. Bagley, *Promotions in the Public Schools*, unpublished study, School of Education, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn., 1953.



cipals, supervisors, and the superintendent should not write the specifications for persons to be assigned to positions in the school system, appointment to which would constitute a promotion. Similarly, the same group could establish criteria by which to judge candidates for promotion.

In another chapter, the whole question of selection of new teachers was discussed. The same procedure should be followed for vacancies occurring in the school system which might be desired by teachers within the system as professional promotions.

### *Termination of Services*

Services can be terminated by resignation, retirement, dismissal, or death. Teachers, from time to time, wish to resign for several reasons, such as

1. To accept positions in other schools.
2. To enter vocations other than teaching.
3. To marry and give up teaching as a career.
4. To meet emergencies.

Resignations can be requests to terminate services while school is in session, or to terminate service at the end of a school semester or school year. In any type of situation, and for all causes, teachers should be expected to give reasonable notice. What constitutes reasonable notice is, of course, a moot question. In emergencies, reasonable notice may be quite a different thing from reasonable notice to accept a position in another school system. Recently, a teacher's mother and father were killed in an automobile accident, leaving a farm to be managed in a state 1,000 miles away. The teacher resigned the day he received the notice and hastily left for the farm to manage the affairs of his deceased parents. Reasonable notice in such a situation was a very short period indeed.

If a teacher desires to terminate his contract with a school district, barring emergencies of the type described, he should give notice well enough in advance to enable the school district to replace him without disrupting the program of the school. The length of time required may vary with the conditions; therefore, no uniform policy could be suggested here. The best procedure seems to be to encourage the professional staff to devise policies cooperatively with respect to the meaning of reasonable notice.

It is folly to attempt to deny teachers the right to resign because a school system gains little, if anything, from retaining a teacher against his will. Some school laws and some school regulations make such action possible, but such laws and regulations do not work in the best interests of children, teachers, or communities.

Retirement always follows a long period of service in the public



schools. In most situations, the retiring teacher has been in the community for many years. In some cases, retirement is mandatory because teachers have reached the mandatory age prescribed by law; in others, teachers retire by their own volition. Teachers who have worked with those who announce their planned retirement, and parents who have worked with such teachers, frequently plan some type of public recognition. This is a wholesome practice and should be encouraged. In one New England city the board of education is planning to reward a teacher who has announced his intention to retire in June, 1955, with a sabbatical leave at full pay for the entire school year of 1954-1955. This teacher has rendered excellent service and has scarcely missed a day of school since he began working for the district. Such practice, though rare, has much to recommend it.

In any case, the rewards and recognition given retiring teachers should be spontaneous and sincere; they should not be practices of established policy but should vary with the community's appreciation of the services of the retiring teacher.

Dismissals should be considered from four points of view:

1. Dismissal before the contracted term of service has been completed.
2. Dismissal effective at the end of the contracted term of service.
3. Refusal to renew a contract after a probationary period of service has been completed.
4. Dismissal of a teacher who has continued contractual service status, or tenure.

Dismissal before the contracted term of service has been completed cannot legally occur unless the teacher has violated the terms of the contract, unless he has violated the reasonable rules and regulations of the board, unless he has violated the laws pertaining to school teachers, or unless he has been guilty of unprofessional conduct. In all cases of this nature, no attempt should be made to dismiss a teacher unless the charges can be proved in court or unless there is sufficient evidence to cause the dismissing agents to believe that the charges can be proved in court.

Unfortunately, many teachers have such little knowledge of school law that they do not know their own legal rights. As a result, some teachers are subjected to inappropriate dismissals without so much as raising an objection. This practice has resulted in boards of education becoming careless about procedures related to dismissals. A few high lights of the legal status of teachers have been presented by the NEA in a recent bulletin.<sup>9</sup>

<sup>9</sup> *The Legal Status of the Public School Teacher*, NEA Research Bulletin 25, p. 2, April, 1947.



1. The courts of the country have been almost unanimous in their opinion that teachers are employees rather than officers.
2. In one state, the courts have held that a board of education may dismiss a teacher because of union membership (Washington).
3. Legally, the question of the right of public employees to strike is unsettled in some states, and is contrary to law in others.
4. The right to bargain collectively with boards of education regarding salaries and working conditions has not been fixed by law or settled by the courts.
5. If a contract is created by legislative enactment, that contract cannot be impaired.
6. Most teachers' contracts are unilateral, that is, binding upon the board of education, but not upon the teacher except regarding unprofessional conduct or gross violation of law or board of education rules.
7. In the absence of state legislation, a local school board undoubtedly has the power to adopt regulations to govern its personnel provided such regulations are not contrary to law or to accepted public policy as determined by the courts.
8. The rules and regulations of a board of education, whether appearing in printed form or merely recorded in the minutes, are a part of all teachers' contracts.
9. Insulting the teacher at a school activity, in the presence of the school or pupil, or on school premises is a misdemeanor in at least ten states. Fines run from \$2 to \$7,000.
10. In some states teachers are immune from garnishment proceedings.
11. Many states explicitly provide that one of the teacher's duties is to maintain order.
12. At common law the teacher's relation to his pupils is *in loco parentis*; that is, while the pupil is in school, the teacher stands in place of parents.
13. Corporal punishment is prohibited in most states.
14. All states forbid cruelty to children.
15. In general, suspension or dismissal of pupils is reserved to the board of education. In some states, the teacher has the power to suspend.
16. It is the duty of a teacher to teach effectively and efficiently.
17. Teachers are sometimes required to teach certain subjects.
18. Teachers are usually required to hold fire drills, teach safety, and provide for physical education of pupils.
19. Character education is a responsibility of teachers in many states.
20. In some states, standards of conduct for teachers are established by law.
21. Teachers have legal responsibilities for care of school property.
22. In some states, teachers are required to show evidence of professional growth at periodic intervals.
23. Teachers who neglect duties are subject to dismissal in all states.
24. Ignorance of the law excuses no one.

Every teacher should be informed concerning the laws of the state which affect him as a teacher. Many groups of teachers have established seminars for local study of school laws. This is a profitable activity. More



teachers should be encouraged to take courses in school law at colleges and universities. Many teachers believe they have contracts with boards of education when in reality they have none.

It is the responsibility of the superintendent of schools to see that teachers are legally employed, but teachers themselves should understand what constitutes legal employment. They should know the legal limitations placed upon boards of education and teachers concerning dismissals. Generally speaking, a teacher's employment is not legal unless the minutes of the board of education show that (1) the motion to employ included the name of the teacher, (2) the motion to employ included the salary to be paid the teacher, (3) the motion to employ included the length of term of service, (4) the motion to employ included the assignment of the teacher, (5) the motion to employ was passed by a roll-call vote, (6) the motion to employ authorized the president, secretary, superintendent, or other officer or officers of the board to sign a contract in the name of the board of education.

Actually a piece of paper signed by proper officers is not a contract unless the minutes of the board of education conform to the laws of the state governing teachers' contracts. What appears in the minutes of the board is crucial in the judgment of the courts.

If a teacher has been legally employed, he cannot be dismissed while the contract is in force unless he has violated the terms of the contract, which include the rules and regulations of the board and the laws of the state regarding teachers. If a teacher is accused of violating a contract, the reasonable rules of the board, or the laws of the state, he should be notified well in advance of dismissal so that he can seek counsel to protect himself should he desire to contest the action of the board. Teachers have the same rights as other citizens in the courts.

Dismissals at the end of a contracted period of service are different matters. Unless a teacher has tenure or unless the laws provide otherwise, no board of education is required by law to issue a teacher a second contract. In some states, unless a teacher is notified by some date specified in the state law that a new contract is not to be issued, the board is required to issue a second contract. In Connecticut, for example, unless a teacher is notified by March 1 that she is not to be employed for the following year, the board is obligated to issue a new contract to the teacher.

Essentially, this law requires a board of education to give a teacher approximately three months' notice before dismissal effective at the end of the contracted period. Usually, where tenure laws are not in effect, boards of education are not required to give reasons for such dismissals, and teachers have no recourse at law.

In some states, boards of education are permitted to issue contracts to



teachers for periods exceeding one year. In such states, the teacher has the same rights for the entire period of the contract as he would have had if the contract had been for a one-year period. Most states refuse boards of education the right to issue contracts for periods of less than one year, but in spite of this, a few school districts continue to issue month-to-month contracts. This latter practice should be investigated to determine its legality in the particular state.

In states where tenure laws exist, the tenure law usually provides a probationary period. Where this is the case, the law usually provides that boards of education must give appropriate notice to teachers if they are to be refused tenure rights. Teachers should be thoroughly familiar with the details of the tenure law; they should know who is responsible for evaluation of their services during the probationary period; and they should understand their own responsibilities, obligations, and rights pertinent thereto.<sup>10</sup>

### *Dismissal of Teachers under Tenure*

The board of education should establish rules and regulations governing dismissal of teachers on tenure which conform to the requirements of the law. Such rules and regulations should be printed or mimeographed and made available to all teachers. The rules should include an accurate statement of the grounds for dismissal; they should contain a statement concerning meanings of terms used in the law; they should stipulate how charges are to be preferred; they should stipulate the requirements concerning notice, hearings, and evidence; they should describe procedure concerning hearings; and they should contain all information needed by the teacher to enable him to conform to the regulations and to protect himself in the event of attempted dismissal.

Dismissals under tenure laws must carefully follow the laws of the state and the rules and regulations of the board. The courts have been very careful to protect the rights of teachers who have tenure, and unless a board of education has a carefully developed case and unless all the legal requirements have been met, the teacher is likely to receive a favorable ruling by the courts.

### SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. What is the effect upon the profession of employing teachers who plan to teach only a year or two?
2. What is the effect upon the profession of employing married women whose husbands are able to support them?
3. What is the practice concerning transfers in your school? Evaluate this practice.

<sup>10</sup> See chapter on Tenure.



4. What is the practice concerning promotions in your school? Evaluate.
5. Investigate the problem of dismissals in your school. What have been the practices?
6. What are the essential elements of the school laws in your state governing employment and dismissals of teachers?
7. How valid is your contract with the school district? Check the facts.
8. Do teachers in your school understand the school laws of the state? If your answer is "yes," how did they acquire their understanding? If "no," what do you propose to do about it?

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## CHAPTER 11 *Leaves of Absence*

Practical school administrators, when asked to indicate the characteristics of a successful teacher, inevitably assert that the personality of the teacher is crucial. Moreover, placement officers, parents, board members, and children agree with this assertion. Since there is such universal agreement about the importance of teacher personality, everything possible should be done to encourage teachers to maintain and to improve their personalities.

It is not easy to define personality, nor is it easy to segregate the factors which contribute to it, but we do know that persons whose energy output is low and whose physical health is poor are not likely to exhibit that sort of behavior which is recognized by associates as wholesome. Thus priority should be given to practical plans for maintaining and improving the health of teachers. While a healthy and wholesome personality can doubtless exist for a time in an unsound body, in the long run it cannot. Physical fitness forms the groundwork for healthy mental life and for wholesome personality. It is conducive to mental alertness, optimism, eagerness, curiosity, enthusiasm, and the ability to recognize humorous aspects of difficult situations. Physical vitality engenders a desirable posture, smiling, neatness, a sense of humor, and patience.

Just as the physical welfare of the teacher is essential to wholesome personality, intellectual curiosity is likewise an important factor. Teachers who know how to make inquiry, who know how to use the results of inquiry in solving problems, and who know how to evaluate the results of inquiry are the teachers who are usually characterized by such words as discerning, discriminating, sagacious, original, and creative.

A third aspect of personality is emotional in nature. Teachers who are enthusiastic, optimistic, cheerful, hopeful, joyous, happy, lighthearted, forceful, courageous, even-tempered, and calm under pressure are recognized by children and adults alike as possessing desirable personalities. Laymen, educators, and clinical psychologists agree that the physical qualities of the teacher, the intellectual qualities of the teacher, and the



emotional qualities of the teacher are the most important aspects of his personality.

Since personality of the teacher is of crucial importance, the plans for granting leaves of absence to teachers should promote health of teachers, intellectual development of teachers, and emotional well-being of teachers. Plans should include leaves for the purpose of recovering from illness, accident, disease, and injury; they should include leaves for the purpose of guaranteeing teachers needed rest and relaxation following serious emotional disturbances; and they should provide leaves designed to aid teachers in their own self-improvement of an intellectual nature.

A teacher who is forced to meet his classes when he is ill may do serious damage to the children in his classes. A teacher bereaved by the loss of a dear friend or a parent is in no state of mental health to be encouraged to be in a classroom. The program for granting leaves should relieve teachers from the anxiety and worry about loss of pay when ill and when emotionally depressed.

Undoubtedly the most important reason for teacher absence is personal illness of the teacher. But there are other important reasons for absence, such as death in the family, illness in the family, important events of family living, and maternity. Similarly, there are professional reasons for absences of teachers. Teachers are asked to attend meetings, to participate in professional organizational work, and to perform important civic duties. In fact, a desirable program for granting leaves of absence would include the following:

1. Short leaves of absence for personal illness or injury.
2. Short leaves of absence for personal reasons other than illness or injury, including
  - a. Leaves because of death or critical illness of members of the teacher's immediate family.
  - b. Leaves to attend weddings of siblings or children of the teacher.
  - c. Leaves to enable the teacher to change local residence.
  - d. Leaves because of other personal emergencies.
3. Maternity leaves.
4. Short leaves of absence for professional reasons.
  - a. To attend educational meetings.
  - b. To visit other schools.
  - c. To take part as speakers on programs.
  - d. To serve the profession through its organizations.
  - e. To perform civic duties such as jury service, voting, answering court summons.
  - f. To perform special professional assignments.
5. Extended leaves of absence for professional growth.
  - a. Study.
  - b. Research.



- c. Travel.
- d. Exchange.
- e. Rest, relaxation, recovery of health.
- 6. Military leave and leave to serve the country.
  - a. Armed forces.
  - b. Civilian defense.
  - c. Federal service other than military.
- 7. Extended or short leaves of absence, without pay, for a variety of purposes approved by the local school authority.

Nearly every school system has made some provisions for sick leave for personal illness or injury although the practices vary considerably throughout the country. In a few schools such leave is granted, but the teacher suffers loss in salary. Fortunately this is a vanishing practice. In 1942 only 7 per cent of the schools granted sick leave without pay, while 93 per cent granted sick leave with some pay.<sup>1</sup> In 1945 about 58 per cent of the schools provided 10 days of sick leave cumulative over a period of years up to 30 days, 9 per cent had such programs cumulative up to 60 days, 6 per cent had such programs cumulative up to 90 days, and 26 per cent provided sick leave with pay without the cumulative feature. Only 1 per cent indicated other plans.<sup>2</sup>

Practically all groups of people concerned with the problem of sick leave agree that teachers should have the benefits of sick leave with full pay. Teachers, principals, superintendents, and parents are in full agreement that such leaves should be granted. The only noticeable objection to sick leave with full pay comes from those who are disturbed over the cost. A secondary objection comes from school people and parents and is concerned with the quality of work done by those who replace teachers on leave. There is a rather general feeling that when a teacher is absent and his work is being handled by a substitute, the children suffer. Practical administrators usually admit that substitute-teacher service is not comparable in quality to the service of regularly employed teachers.

On the cost aspect of the problem, the figures of 1946-1947 indicate that cumulative sick-leave policies cost from \$28 to \$46 per employee per year depending upon the wages paid the substitutes. In that year sick-leave plans cost about 1 per cent of the total amount spent for salaries. It has been estimated that a very broad and extensive program of sick leave would cost no more than 2 per cent of the total amount spent for salaries.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> *Teacher Personnel Procedures: Employment Conditions in Service*, NEA Research Bulletin 20, May, 1942.

<sup>2</sup> *The Teacher Looks at Personnel Administration*, NEA Research Bulletin 23, December, 1945.

<sup>3</sup> *Teacher Leaves of Absence*, NEA Department of Classroom Teachers Discussion Pamphlet 7, p. 1, Washington, September, 1948.



The quality of work done by substitute teachers is an entirely different problem. It is unfortunate that there is very little evidence of a scientific nature upon the effects of sick-leave policies upon the children in the schools. One of the most needed contributions to the field of school administration is that of conducting appropriate research within school systems for the purpose of discovering the effects of sick-leave policies upon learners.

The Metropolitan School Study Council reported that some schools have sick-leave policies which provide for full pay to any teacher who is absent because of illness without any time limits whatsoever. It was the opinion of the inquirers that a teacher needs money most when he is ill and that it promotes good mental health to establish such a policy.<sup>4</sup>

In other schools the same inquirers found policies providing sick leave of 10 days annually, cumulative to 90 days, at which time the 90 days could be combined with 6 months sabbatical leave at full pay, provided the teacher traveled or took sixteen semester hours of graduate credit.

The best sick-leave program would provide that a teacher when absent because of illness or personal disability would suffer no loss in salary whatsoever. But in actual practice, sick-leave programs vary from no leave with pay to unlimited sick leave with pay. Between these two extremes are found several plans, as follows:

1. Sick leave with full salary for not more than a specified number of days per year; in many cases unused days may be accumulated from year to year.
2. Sick leave with part salary; in some cases the teacher receives the difference between his salary and the salary of the substitute; in others the teacher receives a fixed percentage of his salary.
3. Sick leave with full salary for a specified period, plus a fixed number of days at part salary.
4. Sick leave proportional in length to the years of service of a teacher, e.g., 5 days for the first year, 10 for the second, 15 for the third, etc., up to as high as 30 years when leave would amount to 150 days.
5. Sick leave at full or part salary for an indefinite number of days, the number depending upon the merits of each individual case.
6. Sick leave with full salary for an indefinite number of days, provided the total does not exceed a fixed number for the entire staff.
7. Sick leave without pay for the first 5 days and unlimited sick leave thereafter.<sup>5</sup>

Kuhlmann<sup>6</sup> studied the absences of over 10,000 teachers and found that if teachers were granted sick leave with full pay for 10 days per year, 97 per cent of the teachers would be fully covered. He also found

<sup>4</sup> *The School Staff*, p. 8, Metropolitan School Study Council, New York.

<sup>5</sup> A most undesirable practice.

<sup>6</sup> W. T. Kuhlmann, *Teacher Absence and Leave Regulations*, Teachers College Contribution to Education 564, Columbia University, New York, 1933.



that only 68 per cent of the actual days of absence would be covered. Thus it appears that a sick-leave plan providing full pay for 10 days per year would solve the sick-leave problem for nearly all teachers, but that a few teachers who suffered from long illnesses would not be adequately protected. It is apparent that a plan providing for only 10 days of absence with full pay would not be adequate.

Hartford, Conn., has a leave policy, including sick leave, which gives teachers 15 days of leave with full pay each year with unused days accumulating up to a total of 90 days.<sup>7</sup> The policy is as follows:

All employees under regular appointment by the board of education shall be entitled to allowance of full salary not to exceed in the aggregate 15 days for each school year during which the employee is in active service if his work is 10 months, or the school year, and 18 days if his work year is 12 months, cumulative in both cases to the maximum of 90 days for absence due to any of the following causes:

- a. Personal illness.
- b. Serious illness or death of wife, husband, father, mother, son, daughter, grandfather, grandmother, grandchildren, father-in-law, mother-in-law, sister, brother, sister-in-law, brother-in-law, uncle, aunt, or children related by blood or marriage, or member of his household, not to exceed 5 days on any one occasion; holy days not to exceed 3 days in any one year; and quarantine.

In 1952 the Springfield, Mass., schools adopted a new policy with respect to sick leave. Automatic leave is granted for disability and/or emergency according to the following schedule:

1. Employees engaged on a basis of 52 weeks a year, 12 working days.
2. Employees engaged on a basis of 48 weeks a year, 11 working days.
3. Employees engaged on a basis of 40 to 44 weeks a year, 10 working days.

Unused leave may accumulate automatically to an additional 12, 11, or 10 days extending the leave to 24, 22, or 20 working days for the respective group in any one school year. Holidays are not counted in computing leave.

Substitute teachers employed on a weekly basis and temporary civil service employees employed on a long time basis may be granted sick leave on the basis of one day of leave for each twenty days of service.

Upon the recommendation of the superintendent, the School Committee (Board of Education) may extend the total leave of absence without loss of pay to not more than 150 working days in any one year. As a general rule eligibility for such extended leave will depend upon the length of service and the previous attendance record of the employee. In the case of twenty or more years of service, the superintendent may extend sick leave by 20 days.

For the purposes of these regulations, "emergency" may be interpreted to include such cases as home exigencies, quarantine by order of the Health Department, serious illness of a member of the employee's immediate family re-

<sup>7</sup> Personnel policies, Board of Education, Hartford, Conn.



quiring the personal care of that member by the employee, or family bereavement.

A statement of circumstances shall be submitted by the employee, endorsed by the principal or other supervisory officer and forwarded to the central office for consideration by the committee on disability and emergency leave.

Absences of five days or more because of disability must be certified by a physician.<sup>8</sup>

State legislation that makes sick leave with pay mandatory and provides financial assistance to make it possible is beginning to appear.<sup>9</sup> In 1947, for example, the legislature of the state of Illinois enacted the following into law:

The school boards of all school districts including special charter districts shall grant their full-time teachers and other employees sick leave provisions not less in amount than five days at full pay during the school term in each school year. If any such teacher or employee does not use the full amount of annual leave thus allowed, the unused amount shall accumulate to a minimum available leave of fifteen days at full pay, including the leave of the current year. In addition, any such teacher or employee shall be granted thereafter at half pay the same number of days of sick leave during the school term in any school year and the same number of accumulated days as are allowed at full pay. Sick leave shall be interpreted to mean personal illness, quarantine at home, or serious illness or death in the immediate family or household. The school board may require a physician's certificate, or if the treatment is by prayer or spiritual means, that of a spiritual advisor or practitioner of such persons's faith, as a basis for pay during leave after an absence of three days for personal illness, or as it may deem necessary in other cases.<sup>10</sup>

There are three basic approaches to the sick-leave problem. The first and most commonly used approach is that of providing a fixed number of days of absence with full pay with the privilege of accumulating unused days up to a limit set by the board of education. The second approach is to give full pay to teachers absent because of illness provided the number of days of absence for all teachers does not exceed a specified number of days per year. This plan provides for some deduction from the teacher's pay at the time of absence, the amount to be refunded in full if the specified average for the entire staff is not exceeded. A third approach to the problem is presented here because it seems to have the following advantages:

<sup>8</sup> *Personnel Policies Governing the Selection, Conditions of Service, and Salaries of the Instructional Staff of the Springfield Public Schools*, Springfield, Mass., September, 1952.

<sup>9</sup> *Teachers and the Public Schools*, NEA Research Bulletin 27, No. 4, p. 159, December, 1949.

<sup>10</sup> Illinois School Code, Art. 22, Sec. 6, Sick Leave Added by Approval of HB 424 and Approved August 7, 1947.



1. It provides unlimited sick leave with full pay for all teachers.
2. It has a fixed cost to the board of education.
3. It eliminates withholdings from the pay of teachers.
4. It is based upon the experience in the school system, actuarially sound.

#### PROPOSAL FOR UNLIMITED SICK LEAVE WITH A FIXED COST

##### STEPS TO BE TAKEN:

1. Determine the average number of days of absence per teacher due to reasons included in the sick-leave policy for the 4- or 5-year period just passed. (This average is called *A* in the formula which follows.)
2. Determine the per diem wage to be paid during the current year for substitute-teacher service (called *D* in formula).
3. Determine the number of teachers in the school system (called *N* in formula).
4. For the purpose of meeting the cost of the sick-leave policy, appropriate annual amounts equal to the product of *A*, *D*, and *N* and the decimal 1.2.

Example:  $A = 6$

$D = 10$

$N = 100$

Appropriation =  $1.2(6 \times 10 \times 100) = \$7,200$

5. Adopt the following policies:
  - a. The board of education has appropriated the sum of \$\_\_\_\_\_ to cover the cost of granting leaves to teachers for the following causes: (Here list the causes.)
  - b. No teacher shall suffer any loss of salary because of absence for any cause stated in 5a unless the amount of money spent by the board of education to employ substitutes to replace teachers absent due to causes in 5a exceeds the appropriation appearing in 5a.
  - c. If the amount spent by the board to employ substitutes to teach for teachers who are absent for causes stated in 5a exceeds the amount appropriated, the excess shall be deducted from the *last salary checks* of the teachers for the year in which the excess occurred. The deduction shall be the product of the excess times the fraction whose numerator is the number of days of absence of the individual teacher for causes stated in 5a and whose denominator is the sum of all days of such absence by all members of the professional staff.
  - d. If the amount of money spent for employment of substitute teachers is less than the amount appropriated, the difference shall be added to the appropriation for the following year or shall be used to provide funds for other types of leave.
  - e. Should a teacher who had been absent for causes stated in 5a resign to take effect before the end of the school year, the board of education reserves the right to deduct a sum equal to the product of the number of days taught during the school year and \_\_\_\_\_ cents.



- f. Should a teacher be dismissed prior to the close of the school year by the board of education for violation of the laws of the state or for violation of the reasonable rules of the board of education, the board reserves the right to deduct the full amount of money paid to teachers who substituted for such a teacher during absence for causes stated in 5a.
- g. Teachers, principals, supervisors, and all certified personnel are invited to develop a cooperative plan for assuming, wherever reasonable, the duties of teachers absent for causes stated in 5a during the first day of such absence. By cooperatively developing such a plan, the amount of money spent will be reduced, and the effectiveness of the whole plan for granting unlimited leave will be improved.

**EXAMPLE A:**

Number of teachers, 130; substitute rate, \$10 per day; average salary of teachers, \$3,500.

1. Average number of days of absence per teacher because of personal illness or injury for 5-year period = 4.6 days.
2. Appropriation =  $1.2(4.6 \times \$10 \times 130) = \$7,176$ . (This is equal to about 1.5 per cent of total salaries.)
3. Teachers were absent for personal illness or injury as follows:

Days absent per teacher	Number of teachers	Product total
0	13	0
1	23	23
2	24	48
3	20	60
4	10	40
5	10	50
6	7	42
7	6	42
8	5	40
9	0	0
10	0	0
11	1	11
12	2	24
13	1	13
14	1	14
15	2	30
20	1	20
30	1	30
60	2	120
90	0	0
100	1	100
Total.....	130	707



4. Amount spent for employment of substitute teachers was \$6,600. (Teachers assumed duties of fellow teachers to account for 47 days of absence of teachers.)
5. The amount appropriated exceeded the amount spent by \$576, so no deductions were made even for the teacher who was absent 100 days. Hence, \$576 was free to be added to the appropriation the following year.

**EXAMPLE B:**

A few years later—the same school system. The substitute-teacher salary has risen to \$12 per day instead of \$10, and there are now 141 teachers. The average days of absence per teacher is now 4.7 rather than 4.6; hence, the appropriation is  $1.2(4.7 \times \$12 \times 141) = \$9,542$ .

Salaries increased from an average of \$3,500 to an average of \$3,600; hence, the appropriation for sick leave now represents 1.3 per cent of all salaries.

Adding \$576 from the previous years, the total becomes \$10,118.

An epidemic of influenza caused a slight increase in absence. The total number of days of absence was as follows:

Days absent per teacher	Number of teachers	Product total
0	15	0
1	15	15
2	25	50
3	17	51
4	15	60
5	15	75
6	3	18
7	8	56
8	5	40
9	3	27
10	6	60
15	5	75
20	2	40
30	6	180
60	0	0
90	0	0
120	1	120
Total.....	141	867

The amount spent for substitute teachers in this year was \$10,140. (Teachers had found it possible to take classes of co-workers to the extent of 22 days.)

In this case the amount spent exceeded the amount appropriated by \$22.

Each day of absence therefore meant a deduction of  $1/867 \times \$22$  or  $2\frac{1}{2}$  cents.

Thus teachers who had been absent 1 day would have the sum of 3 cents



deducted from their last checks. Others would have the following amounts deducted from their last checks:

<i>Days absent</i>	<i>Deduction</i>
0	\$0.00
1	0.03
2	0.05
3	0.08
4	0.10
5	0.13
6	0.15
7	0.18
8	0.20
9	0.23
10	0.25
15	0.38
20	0.50
30	0.75
120	3.00

The advantage of the plan proposed is that the board of education could be certain of the amount to be expended for employment of substitute teachers. Except when seriously abnormal conditions prevail, teachers would never be likely to be required to suffer significant deductions, and after a period of fortunate years the accumulated savings would more than take care of such emergencies. Hence, with careful study and planning, teachers could within a few years be guaranteed unlimited sick leave without fear of loss in wages, while the board of education would be guaranteed against exceeding its budgeted amount for giving such leave.

Furthermore, if this plan were inaugurated, teachers would be very likely to work out cooperative plans for taking over some of the classes of some teachers for the first day or two, thereby reducing the cost to the school system and giving administrators more time to locate replacement teachers.

It is possible that teachers could protect themselves against emergencies which might require assessments at the end of the year by having a teacher welfare fund as was the case among the teachers in School District 99, Cicero, Ill.<sup>11</sup> In that district each union member contributed annually at the rate of \$3 per year to a teacher welfare fund. This fund, as it accumulated, was used to pay teachers a small daily sum if they were absent for personal illness or injury. The usual amount was about \$2 per day although it varied from year to year. If such a system had been in effect in the case described above, no teacher would have lost any income because of absence for illness or injury; in fact each teacher's

<sup>11</sup> A policy developed by the teachers' union, affiliated with the AFT.



income would have been augmented. Furthermore, teachers could purchase small accident and health policies which would reimburse them in such amounts as to take care of doctor bills, hospital expenses, and assessments. With the third plan in operation, with hospital insurance such as Blue Cross, with health insurance, and with accident insurance, a teacher could feel secure; he would know that his income would not suffer by reason of illness or accident.

### *Short Leaves for Personal Reasons Other Than Illness or Injury*

All the following types of short leaves can easily be lumped under this heading.

1. Short leaves because of illness or death of members of the immediate family.
2. Leaves to attend weddings or wedding anniversaries of members of the immediate family.
3. Leaves to move from one residence to another.
4. Short leaves for other emergencies, but not sick leave.

Leaves for the purposes listed above are not likely to occur very often; hence they do not present the financial problem which characterizes leaves for personal illness or injury. However, the granting of such leaves is chiefly concerned with mental health of teachers and is of great importance to the staff.

The only major difficulty to overcome in granting short leaves of absence for personal reasons other than personal illness or injury is that of defining accurately what is to be included in such a program. A safe definition of what can be included under this type of leave might be stated as follows:

Leaves of absence for personal reasons other than personal illness or injury shall be those leaves granted because of the critical illness or death of mother, father, sister, brother, husband, wife, or children; leaves granted for the purpose of attending weddings of brothers, sisters, or children; leaves granted to enable the teacher to move from one residence to another; and short emergency leaves for personal reasons approved by the superintendent of schools. (Other reasons could be included of course.)

Probably this type of leave should be granted in quite a different manner from any of the three plans presented for sick leave. Since the conditions are so variable, it is suggested that when a teacher is first employed, he should be informed that the board has granted the teacher the right to leaves of absence for the purposes stated above in a blanket amount to last for the entire period of service in the schools. It is suggested that such blanket amount be limited to thirty days. (The number should be based upon past experience.)



### *Maternity Leave*

Maternity leave has become a distinct need. Since many boards of education are discovering that married women make superior teachers and since the profession has been greatly benefited by removal of the notion that spinsterhood is the price of staying in the profession, an adequate plan for granting leaves of absence must make provision for maternity leaves.

While it is considered to be highly advantageous to the profession and to children to employ married women, it is equally true that married women with children should not neglect their own offspring in order to teach school. It would be contrary to public policy to adopt a maternity-leave plan which would encourage mothers to let others rear their children in the early years of child development. It is recommended that the following policy be adopted:

Maternity leave without pay shall be granted to any married woman who has served the school district for not less than 1 year, provided that such leave shall be requested within the first 90 days of pregnancy and provided further that such maternity leave shall be for not less than 2 years, except that if the child (or children) should die within the period of such leave, the board may, upon request of the teacher, shorten the period of maternity leave. It shall be the policy of the board under all situations to terminate maternity leave on the first day of the semester following the 2-year minimum period. The teacher may count the days in which she is confined in maternity ward, not to exceed 10 days, as personal illness and shall be paid upon her return to service in the schools for such days. The teacher on maternity leave shall notify the school authorities in writing concerning her desire to be reinstated at the end of the maternity-leave period or forfeit her rights to reinstatement. A teacher on maternity leave shall be entitled to salary increments which may have been granted during the period she was on leave.

### *Short Leaves of Absence for Professional Reasons*

Leaves of absence for short periods to attend meetings, to visit schools, and to observe other teachers can be classified as short leaves for professional purposes. Such leaves should include

1. Short leaves to attend educational meetings.
2. Short leaves to visit other schools.
3. Short leaves to participate on programs within the community or outside of it.
4. Short leaves as a result of being officers in professional organizations or on committees of a professional nature.
5. Short leaves to perform special assignments made by the administrative officers.



6. Other short leaves which, in the opinion of the board of education and the professional staff, are for the best interest of the schools.

Since no one can foretell the future activities of a teacher, it is difficult to set a fixed number of days for short professional leaves. The following policy or some modifications of it would be appropriate:

Short leaves of absence with full salary for professional purposes shall be granted teachers as follows: Each teacher shall be granted 3 days per year with full pay to attend educational meetings, to visit other schools, to participate as program speakers, to serve as officers of state or national organizations, to perform special assignments made by administrative officers, to participate in other activities approved by the board and the staff, provided that 1 unused day per year can be accumulated to a total of 15 days.

EXAMPLE:

A teacher who served the district for 15 years could use 2 days each year and in his sixteenth year have a total of 15 days for such leave.

*Extended Leaves with Some Pay for Professional Reasons*

One of the greatest needs in public schools is that of extended leaves to enable the teachers to pursue advanced degrees, to do graduate work beyond the master's degree, to earn bachelor's degrees, to travel, and to participate in other types of professional work which are likely to improve the teachers in service.

The chief objection to granting such leaves is that boards of education cannot be convinced that the school district can afford to pay the bill. Boards object to "sabbatical leave" because it costs too much.

Yet wherever schools have granted extended leaves with pay for professional reasons, principals, superintendents, teachers, parents, and boards of education agree that the effects are wholly good in terms of improved services.<sup>12</sup> If such leaves were granted without any pay, the same people felt they were of little value to the schools or to the teachers.

A cooperative plan is submitted here which, if followed, would enable boards of education to grant extended leaves of absence at half salary or more for one full year at little or no cost to the board of education and with a very low cost to teachers. As boards discovered the value which such leaves have for the schools, they would probably improve the plan so that the board would pay an even larger per cent of the salary of teachers on leave.

It should be emphasized that a program for granting extended leaves of absence should be predicated upon submission of a well-developed plan for the use of time while on leave and that before such a leave is

<sup>12</sup> C. A. Weber, *Techniques Employed in a Selected Group of Secondary Schools of the North Central Association for Educating Teachers in Service*, Doctoral Dissertation, p. 216, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., 1943.



granted, the plan should be approved by those granting the leave. A highly recommended procedure is to request the teachers themselves to elect a committee to evaluate all requests for extended leaves of absence and to allow only those leaves which have been recommended by the teacher committee.<sup>13</sup> It might be even better to form a committee consisting of the superintendent of schools, a principal elected by the principals, three teachers elected by the teachers, a school-board member, and a person to be designated by the applicant to evaluate the request. No leave should be granted unless it can be clearly shown that the teacher requesting the leave has thought seriously enough about his projected activities to formulate a well-defined plan.

### *Extended Leaves with Pay for Professional Purposes*

Extended leaves with half pay for professional purposes should include:

1. Those for study and research leading to an advanced degree.
2. Those for study and research not leading to an advanced degree but approved by the committee.
3. Those for educational travel or work experience approved by the committee prior to taking such leave.
4. Extended leave for rest, relaxation, and recovery of health or other reasons approved by the committee.

Such leaves should be granted for periods of not less than 1 semester nor for more than 1 year. They should be granted only to teachers who have served the school district for a period of 7 years or more.

If a teacher whose annual salary is \$4,000 is granted leave for 1 semester at half pay and a replacement is employed for the same period at a salary of \$1,200, the total cost to the district would be \$200, not \$2,000. If half this cost were borne by the teacher, the net cost to the board for one-half year of leave at half pay would be only \$100.

It is recommended that boards of education adopt the following policy for granting extended leaves with pay for purposes of professional growth:

1. All newly employed teachers shall be notified in writing (preferably stated in the contract) that 1 per cent of each regular pay check will be deducted from the salary of the teacher and held in escrow by the board of education for the purpose of providing extended leaves of absence to the teacher for the purpose of professional growth.
2. All teachers within the system at the time of adoption of this policy may elect, by making a request in writing, to receive the benefits of the extended-leave policy, and if they so elect, the board shall immediately thereafter deduct from each salary check of any such teacher 1 per cent of each salary check issued thereafter. A teacher in service at the time of the adop-

<sup>13</sup> This is done in Springfield, Mass.



tion of this policy may, by paying to the board an amount equal to 1 per cent of each annual salary for any number of years of passed service in the district up to a limit of 7 years, choose to begin his period of credit as of the date selected by such teacher.

3. Whenever the total amount of the accumulated deductions for a given teacher shall be equal to or greater than 7 per cent of his annual salary, said teacher shall be eligible for extended leave for a period of 1 year at 50 per cent of his annual salary at the time of eligibility.
4. Not more than 10 per cent of the total teaching staff who are covered by extended-leave benefits shall be granted extended leave in any one year. Whenever more than 10 per cent of such teachers request leave, preference will be given to those who have the longest service in the school district.
5. When a teacher is eligible for an extended leave he must either
  - a. Request a leave under this policy, or
  - b. Request a full refund of all accumulated deductions.
  - c. If a teacher fails to make a request for leave and fails to request the full refund within a year of eligibility, the board shall refund the accumulated amount to the credit of the teacher and start over as before.
  - d. If a leave is not granted, the total amount withheld from salaries or paid to the board shall be refunded to the teacher immediately.
6. Any teacher who resigns, who is dismissed, who retires, or who otherwise separates himself from the district shall be entitled to full refund of all such accumulated deductions held in escrow by the board.
7. The salary of the substitute teacher shall be the salary for a beginning teacher as provided in the salary schedule.
8. Whenever a teacher makes a request for leave, the request shall
  - a. Contain a detailed plan for said leave.
  - b. Contain a statement of purpose or goal of leave.
  - c. Contain a statement of benefits he hopes to get.
  - d. Contain a statement of benefits likely to accrue to the school.

#### EXAMPLE A:

Miss Jones was employed in 1950 at an annual salary of \$2,600, which was the minimum salary provided by the schedule. She served for nine years, and her salaries and deductions are as follows:

Year	Salary	1% deduction	Accumulation
1st—1950	\$2,600	\$26	\$ 26
2d—1951	2,800	28	54
3d—1952	3,000	30	84
4th—1953	3,200	32	116
5th—1954	3,400	34	150
6th—1955	3,600	36	186
7th—1956	3,800	38	224
8th—1957	4,000	40	264
9th—1958	4,000	40	304



During the ninth year the accumulated deductions totaled more than 7 per cent of \$4,000 (\$280); hence during her ninth year Miss Jones applied for a leave of 1 year with 50 per cent salary, or \$2,000 for the year.

The board granted the leave and employed a substitute at a salary of \$2,600 for the year. Cost to school district, \$296.

The salary of the teacher on leave would be \$200 per month for 10 months. Such a salary would enable Miss Jones to complete a master's degree or complete a year of residence required for a doctorate.

(In view of the fact that the trend in certification is to require teachers, during their first ten years of service, to secure advanced degrees or their equivalents, for permanent certification and even tenure rights, this plan meets a developing need.)

#### EXAMPLE B:

Henry James began teaching in 1950 and elected in 1953 to receive the benefits of the plan for extended leave of absence. His beginning salary was \$2,400 in 1950. In 1951 he received \$2,700, in 1952 he received \$2,900, and in 1953 he was receiving \$3,100. He was, therefore, required to deposit the sum of \$24 plus \$27 plus \$29 plus \$31, or \$111, with the board of education. Hence we have the following:

Payment of back accumulations..... \$111			
Year	Salary	1% deductions	Accumulation
1954	\$3,300	\$33	\$144
1955	3,500	35	179
1956	3,600	36	215
1957	3,700	37	252
1958	3,800	38	290

At this point the accumulation exceeded 7 per cent of his salary, so Mr. James applied for an extended leave for 1 year with 50 per cent salary.

The board of education arranged for the leave, employed a substitute for 1 year at the annual salary rate of \$2,400. Mr. James received \$190 per month for 10 months while on leave. Total cost to the board, \$210.

Mr. James, anticipating the leave, had applied for a graduate assistantship at the University of Illinois and had been awarded a \$1,000 grant as such an assistant. Mr. James was enabled, with a salary of \$190 per month for 10 months and an assistantship of \$100 per month, to take his wife and son to the University of Illinois, where he studied in the field of physical education and health so that he could render better service to his own school district. While on leave Mr. James's income was \$290 per month.

One of the greatest blocks encountered by teachers with dependents who desire to accept the opportunities for further study offered by many of the graduate schools in the country is the fact that to accept means



financial catastrophe for the family or for the dependents. The result is that such people resort to summer study and extension-course work for their advanced study and thereby miss the most profitable type of learning, namely, unhampered, free study without pressure from regular work assignments. Furthermore, most graduate schools require actual residence, and properly so, for those who seek graduate degrees above the master's level.

Establishing the plan proposed here, which involves little cost to boards of education, would greatly improve the opportunity for advanced professional preparation of married men with families because they could secure fellowships and assistantships to augment their leave-of-absence salaries and thus meet the bare needs of family life while on leave.

Teachers would greatly benefit from travel, work experience in industry, work experience in other sections of the country or in foreign lands, research work with foundations, and similar experiences. Granting extended leaves of absence to enable teachers, principals, and superintendents to engage in such activities would be of great benefit to the children in the schools and to the teachers themselves, and would cost school districts very little.

Furthermore, as will be pointed out later, it would enable teacher-training agencies to provide much better fifth-year programs for teachers by making it possible to establish a really effective internship program similar to the internship plan employed in the profession of medicine. It, therefore, seems highly desirable that school districts adopt the plan proposed here for granting extended leaves of absence with pay to teachers—especially when the cost to the district is nominal.

### *Leaves for Military Service*

In these times boards of education should be prepared to offer leaves of absence with pay for military service and for similar defense service to one's country in time of war. School District 99, Cicero, Ill., had a very generous policy which served the children well because it brought men and women who left the teaching profession for the armed services back to the classroom. The school's policy was so well received by all concerned that it is recommended here.

If a teacher enters the armed services, he shall be granted leave of absence by the board for the duration of such service, and if his gross pay for such service in the armed forces is less than his salary would have been in the schools, he shall, upon return to the schools, receive the difference between his service pay and the salary he would have received. All increments given to teachers during such absence shall apply to the teacher on such leave. The same rules and leave shall apply to any teacher who is requested by a governmental agency other than the armed forces to serve his country in time of war.



### *Leaves of Absence without Pay*

Boards of education should provide for leaves of absence without pay. Some such provision as the following should appear in the records of the board:

A leave of absence without pay, for reasons acceptable to the board and for periods of not less than 1 semester or more than 1 year, shall be granted to any teacher who has served the school district at least 2 years, provided request for such leave is submitted in writing at least 60 days prior to the date of beginning of such leave.

Leaves of absence without pay for periods shorter than 1 semester may be granted by the board upon request of the teacher and subject to the discretion of the board. The board cannot approve such leave unless it is clearly shown that no damage is likely to occur to the teaching-learning situation as a result of such leave.

Throughout the nation the people have continued to demand better school health programs for their children. There is evidence that the greatest improvement in school health services for children can be made by helping teachers themselves to be healthy.<sup>14</sup> Recognizing the health of the teacher as the cornerstone of any effective school health program, the Department of Classroom Teachers of the NEA devoted its entire Ninth Yearbook to this problem.<sup>15</sup> It was the observation of this group that many school systems give little more than lip service to the problem of teacher health. Certainly providing sick leave which will enable every teacher to recover from illness, without exposure of the children to disease or to being led by a person not fit to teach, is an obligation of every board of education in the best interests of its children.

Authorities agree that the classroom atmosphere should be conducive to mental health. They assert, also, that the emotional atmosphere of the classroom is set by the teacher. The Regents Inquiry in 1936 revealed that the personality of the teacher was of tremendous importance in determining the emotional atmosphere of the classroom.<sup>16</sup> Similarly, a study by Anderson and Brewer<sup>17</sup> demonstrated that the attitudes of teachers greatly influenced the emotional climate of the classroom. Wattenberg and Redl<sup>18</sup> assert that the personnel policies established in

<sup>14</sup> Dorothy B. Nyswander, *Solving School Health Problems*, Commonwealth Fund, 1942.

<sup>15</sup> *Fit to Teach*, Ninth Yearbook of the Department of Classroom Teachers, NEA, Washington, 1938.

<sup>16</sup> C. E. A. Winslow, *The School Health Program*, p. 5, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1938.

<sup>17</sup> H. H. Anderson and H. M. Brewer, *Studies of Teachers' Classroom Personalities: Effects of Teachers' Dominative and Integrative Contacts on Children*, Applied Psychology Monograph 8, 1946.

<sup>18</sup> W. W. Wattenberg and Fritz Redl, "Mental Hygiene," in W. S. Monroe (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 739, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1950.



most of our schools have greatly harmed teachers and that the harm thus done to teachers has done damage to the teaching-learning situation.

Participation in the activities of teachers' organizations is an important factor in the maturation of a teacher. By rubbing elbows with co-workers from other schools and other cities, the teacher loses the narrow perspective which so easily engulfs the person whose educational life is circumscribed by continued contact with a given situation. It is very easy for teachers to develop immature attitudes because of their continued efforts to meet children on their levels of learning and understanding. Little children are naïve, and teachers who continually work with children, never associating with adults from outside their own circle, may become naïve, too. Probably one of the reasons why teachers are so easily spotted by laymen is the fact that they have not had sufficient opportunity to participate in active, wide-awake, adult groups. If teachers are to become increasingly mature, they should participate actively in the work of teachers' organizations. This they cannot do unless some provision is made for leaves of absence to permit the practice.

Current periodical literature and current nonprofessional literature is replete with statements to the effect that teachers should keep abreast of the latest developments in such areas as science, history, economics, government, politics, educational practice, theory of learning, world affairs, and a host of other fields. Some of the best ways for teachers to grow in their understanding of these areas is for them to leave their schools and attend colleges or universities, travel in foreign lands, study industries and their problems, engage in related work experience, and confer with professional people wherever they choose. None of these activities can become realities unless the school has a program for granting teachers extended leaves of absence, because teachers cannot afford to engage in these activities summer after summer; salaries are too low.

A successful program for granting leaves of absence depends largely upon the amount of cooperative planning which exists in a school. When teachers can feel free to develop their own proposals, when they can feel free to use their own intelligence to solve personnel problems, when their own ideas count, then teachers develop the sort of plans which are most likely to succeed.

### SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. What are the defects in the plan submitted in this chapter for providing unlimited sick leave?
2. What is your reaction to the proposals concerning maternity leave?
3. What is your reaction to the proposals concerning extended leaves of absence?



4. What are the advantages of cumulative sick leave over the sick-leave proposal offered here?

5. What are the objections to an adequate program for leaves of absence in your school system?

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## CHAPTER 12 *Substitute-teacher Service*

Reference was made in Chapter 11 to the need for developing sound plans of action governing the employment, education, and wise use of substitute teachers. School leaders have reported two major obstacles to establishment of appropriate plans for granting leaves of absence. The first obstacle reported was the problem of cost; the second was that children frequently suffer from low-quality teaching on the part of substitute teachers. While the first objection is often more difficult to overcome, the second is professionally more important. When the two are combined, the obstacles are great indeed.

Unless a school system has developed a sound plan for the employment and assignment of teachers to replace teachers who are absent for brief periods, the children are likely to suffer. Unfortunately, current practice in many of our schools is haphazard, unplanned, based upon convenience, and ineffective. The usual practice is to encourage women in the community who might be interested in doing substitute work to file their names with school authorities indicating in what general areas they prefer to work. These people are then put on a substitute-teacher list and are called upon as needed. Very few schools carefully select replacement teachers, and even fewer schools have developed any kind of program for educating such teachers for the job to be done. Often the substitute teacher is selected in terms of his ability to "maintain order" while the regular teacher is away.

It is not surprising that boards of education and the public have had their doubts about the value of a program for granting extended leaves of absence for teachers. As a profession, we have done such a miserable job in the way of providing substitute-teacher service for the short day-to-day absences of teachers that children, parents, teachers, and board members are suspicious of the practice of granting leaves.<sup>1</sup>

During the past three years the writer has discussed this problem with more than four hundred teachers and over sixty school administra-

<sup>1</sup> M. D. Allison, "Hey, a Substitute!" *NEA Journal*, 40:190 (March, 1951).



tors. About 90 per cent of the professional people themselves believe that the effects of our present procedures with respect to the employment of substitute teachers are not such as to cause public approval.

Children themselves have often developed the feeling that when a substitute teacher arrives, the time has come for rest, relaxation, play, fun, and very little work. Some of this reaction is to be expected, of course, because children, if they are alive, will "try out" the temporary teacher every time.

Connors,<sup>2</sup> in 1927, made a study of substitute-teacher service in the public schools of Ohio. He recommended that public schools should devote more time and energy to educating substitute teachers who were to be employed in the schools, and that schools should devise plans of action for developing better coordination between teachers regularly employed and substitute teachers.

Later Baldwin<sup>3</sup> made an extensive study of the handling of substitute-teacher problems in city school systems. Like Connors, Baldwin recommended that more systematic methods for training substitute teachers should be developed, and that the schools had a positive duty to see that substitute teachers know more about the duties and responsibilities of those teachers whom they replaced.

Anderson<sup>4</sup> asserted that there was a great need for the study of problems pertaining to the substitute-teacher service in our schools, that there was a felt need for education of substitutes in service, that much more attention should be devoted to integrating the work of the regular teacher and the substitute, and that better plans for evaluating the services of substitutes should be devised.

The most recent and most significant research on the topic of substitute-teacher service was recently completed by Turner<sup>5</sup> at George Peabody College for Teachers. Turner studied policies concerning substitute-teacher service in ninety-six major American cities to determine what policies were being followed, what principles should govern substitute-teacher service, how well current practice followed the principles established, and what recommendations should be made concerning the administration of substitute-teacher service.

<sup>2</sup> F. H. Connors, *The Substitute Teacher Service in the Public Schools*, Doctoral Dissertation, Ohio State University, Columbus, 1927.

<sup>3</sup> C. C. Baldwin, *Organization and Administration of Substitute Teacher Services in City School Systems*, Teachers College Contribution to Education 615, Columbia University, New York, 1934.

<sup>4</sup> E. W. Anderson, "Substitute Teachers," in W. S. Monroe (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 1424, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1950.

<sup>5</sup> Floyd V. Turner, *The Administrative Policies Governing Substitute Teacher Service in Major American Cities*, Doctoral Dissertation, Peabody Contribution to Education, Second Series, No. 9, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn., August, 1952.



The principles enunciated by Turner were as follows:<sup>6</sup>

1. The superintendent of schools, acting under the authority vested in him by the board of education, should be responsible for the administration of substitute-teaching service.
2. The selection and assignment of substitute teachers should be administered from a central office.
3. The selection and assignment of substitute teachers should be made solely on the basis of merit.
4. The professional qualifications of eligible substitute teachers should be the same as the qualifications for the regular teaching staff.
5. Substitute teachers should be used only in the grade levels, school divisions, and within subject matter fields for which they are qualified.
6. A large city system should systematically zone the school district for purposes of administering substitute-teaching service.
7. Salaries of substitute teachers should be based upon a planned salary schedule and permanent or full-time substitutes should have all the benefits of the regular teachers.
8. The school budget of the large city school system should treat substitute-teaching service as a distinctive item.
9. A system of adequate and useful records should be maintained so that substitute-teaching service can be intelligently administered.
10. In-service education and adequate supervision should be provided for the substitute teacher.
11. There should be some method of evaluating and rating the work of the substitute teacher.
12. There should be a definite set of rules and regulations applying to the administration of substitute-teaching service formulated in every school system.

Turner<sup>7</sup> found that cities are centralizing administration of substitute-teacher service, that superintendents usually administer the service, that very few school systems use a plan of zoning the school district for substitute-teacher service, that most cities try to make qualifications for substitutes as high as for other teachers, that personal application is the chief recruiting device, and that appointment must, in most cases, be upon recommendation of the superintendent.

Further findings were as follows:

1. Approved lists of substitutes were prepared and revised.
2. Regular teachers were usually required to report intended absence to principals.
3. Inadequate cooperation exists between substitutes and regular teachers.
4. Generally substitutes were selected because of their qualifications.
5. Substitutes with better records were used more often.

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*, Chap. II, "Administrative Principles Governing Substitute Teaching," pp. 7-39.

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*, Chap. V, "Summary."



6. Only limited efforts were made to educate substitute teachers in service.
7. Substitutes are usually allowed to teach only in areas where they are qualified.
8. Two out of three schools rate substitute teachers. Rating is done by administrative officers.
9. Less than half the schools employed full-time substitutes.
10. Substitutes are usually paid at daily rates with no consideration for experience or education.
11. About half the schools had separate budget items for substitute-teacher service.
12. Nearly all schools based current estimates of need for substitute service on previous experience.
13. In general, substitute teachers do not enjoy such benefits as tenure, retirement, or sick leave.
14. Fairly accurate records of qualifications, employment, and evaluations are kept.

Turner listed twelve conclusions<sup>8</sup> from his inquiries which were essentially as follows:

1. There should be an approved list of available substitutes in the central office.
2. Substitutes should be required to have state teaching certificates and should meet all minimum requirements as determined by the board.
3. Names of substitutes should be filed by areas or zones rather than on a district-wide basis.
4. Salaries of substitutes should be determined by a salary schedule, and permanent substitutes should enjoy benefits of tenure and sick leave.
5. More cities should carry salaries of substitutes as a separate budget item.
6. Much more attention should be given to in-service education of substitute teachers.
7. Adequate orientation programs for substitutes are lacking; there should be greater emphasis upon this important aspect of personnel administration.
8. There is a great need for more cooperative planning between regular teachers and substitutes.
9. There should be more adequate programs of supervision and evaluation.
10. Evaluation of substitutes should be designed to improve instruction, help determine promotions, and to determine eligibility for further service.
11. Subject to the desires of the substitute, competent substitutes should be given permanent positions whenever possible.
12. More cities should employ full-time substitutes.

Several findings of Turner are particularly important in a discussion of personnel management. For example:

Quite often substitutes are not made to feel that they are an important part of the school system, or for that matter, that they are a part of it at all.<sup>9</sup>

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, conclusions, pp. 7-110ff.; digest appearing in Dissertation.

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 33.



A strange paradox exists when a school system demands a staff of professionally up-to-date regular teachers and provides means for insuring it, but at the same time neglects completely the professional growth of its substitute teachers.<sup>10</sup>

Too often substitutes are assigned . . . with the idea in mind of getting someone in the classroom to maintain order during the absence of the regular teacher.<sup>11</sup>

The temptation is apparently great to belittle the importance of the substitute teacher in the classroom.<sup>12</sup>

When it is firmly established that the performance of a substitute teacher is unsatisfactory and shows no improvement after repeated attempts have been made to help, that substitute should be relieved of future assignments and should be dropped from the eligible list.<sup>13</sup>

Turner found that teachers had practically no part in orientation of substitutes, in evaluating substitutes, or in approving substitutes. In some school systems teachers did suggest persons to be placed on the list.<sup>14</sup> Factors considered in the selection of substitute teachers were, in order of frequency, (1) qualifications for the job, (2) expressed choice of the principal, (3) readiness with which the individual could be called to work, (4) seniority on lists, (5) rank according to rating sheets, and (6) economic needs of the substitute.<sup>15</sup>

In the same study the investigator found that substitute teachers were required to participate in certain activities in order to remain on the list of eligible substitutes. These activities were, in order of frequency, (1) attend special meetings for substitutes, (2) attend regular staff meetings, (3) continue their study in colleges, (4) observe demonstration teaching, (5) meet higher standards of certification, (6) engage in professional reading, and (7) attend preschool workshops.<sup>16</sup>

Turner made no effort to discover whether or not substitute-teaching services had any good or bad effects upon the teaching-learning situation, although he implied in the body of his discussion that much of the teaching service rendered by substitutes was below the standard of regular teachers. His heavy emphasis upon the need for in-service education implies that substitute teachers are likely to have damaging effects upon the learning situation. In one section he illustrates this point by writing:<sup>17</sup>

The first day the substitute teacher was on the job, she administered corporal punishment to several of the children which was entirely too severe for

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 32.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 13.

<sup>12</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 14.

<sup>13</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 37.

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 49-53.

<sup>15</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 61.

<sup>16, 17</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 65.



primary aged children. Matters went from bad to worse, and many parents called the superintendent of schools regarding the situation, but nothing was done about it. Finally it was necessary for the regular teacher to return to duty earlier than her doctor wanted her to just because of the inefficiency of the substitute teacher.

Turner made no effort to discover the part played by teachers in developing plans of action for the selection, education, evaluation, and retention of substitute teachers. From the point of personnel management, this problem should be investigated soon.

Even though there is little available literature concerning the effects of substitute-teacher service upon children, appropriate and effective plans are essential. Every wide-awake school leader should go to work on this problem at once. The professional staff in every school system should begin at once to make inquiry into the problem of providing better substitute-teacher service. Such a study should include

1. Inquiry concerning peak needs for substitute teachers in every area.
2. Specifications for substitute teachers in each area (including certification).
3. Recruitment of teachers who meet the specifications and who would be available for service.
4. In-service training and workshops for teachers who have been accepted.
5. Publications including rules, regulations, and policies governing substitute-teacher service, wages, and requirements.
6. Methods for evaluating the services of substitutes.

Only qualified teachers should be employed as substitute teachers. They should be either certified or eligible for certification and should be assigned to work only in areas in which they are certified to serve.

Primary teachers should be assigned the job of writing specifications for teachers to serve in grades K through 3 and should be assigned the responsibility of orienting and training such substitutes. If training periods are required, it is probably true that the substitute teachers should be paid, in part at least, for the time devoted by them to such workshop study. Prospective temporary teachers should be required to visit classes of those for whom they are likely to substitute so that they will not be complete strangers to the situation. Similarly, teachers of the intermediate grades, teachers of the upper grades, teachers of science, English, social studies, commercial subjects, agriculture, shop work, music, art, and other areas of the secondary schools should be held responsible for similar aspects of the substitute-teacher plan.

The school managers should be responsible for the preparation of and issuance of bulletins for use by substitute teachers. The material in the bulletins should be based upon the work done by the various teacher groups in the school and should be extensive enough to furnish substitute



teachers with all the basic information needed. Such bulletins should include

1. Professional requirements for substitute teachers in the various teaching areas.
2. Statement concerning the extent of service needed.
3. Procedure with respect to filing application for appointment.
4. Financial remuneration
  - a. For actual teaching service.
  - b. For in-service training activities.
5. Requirements concerning communication problems (so schools can quickly contact replacements).
6. Evaluative practices.
7. Filing of reports by substitutes.
8. Essential rules governing classroom management.
9. Requirements with respect to responsibilities of those on the substitute list toward being informed about textbooks, materials of instruction, marks, reports, etc.
10. Information concerning general school organization.
11. Professional ethics for substitute teachers.

Every school should study the history of substitute-teacher needs in the schools and in a systematic manner develop an experience record which would indicate *peak* needs on a yearly basis in the following areas:

1. Primary area (kindergarten through grade 3).
2. Middle area (grades 4, 5, and 6).
3. Upper area (grades 7 and 8).
4. Specialized secondary areas, *e.g.*, English.

By careful projection of each year's experience upon the history of peak loads, a school could make accurate predictions of its peak needs for substitute teachers for one year in advance. If, for example, experience demonstrated that seven was the peak number of teachers needed for the year in the primary area, the school should seek to enroll a sufficient number of qualified persons to guarantee that at any time seven such persons would be available. This might require actual enrollment of ten qualified persons. Once enrolled, these people should be given some training at school expense in the work of the primary teacher. It is suggested that a one-day workshop at the beginning of each school year, for which the substitute teachers would be paid at the regular per-diem rate, would pay huge dividends in terms of improved services. In all probability, many communities could afford to have longer periods of training with pay, while others might find it difficult to pay for such in-service work. At any rate, prospective teachers could be informed that



such periods of training were prerequisites to appointment as a substitute teacher. It would be foolish to attempt to state here what should be done in a given school system, but of one thing the writer is convinced: If school administrators would utilize the combined intelligence of teachers they serve, they could cooperatively develop better plans and procedures. The really important need is for school leaders to recognize that most of the problems concerning substitute-teacher service can be solved by intelligent inquiry which involves all the personnel. In fact, such inquiry is likely to be the only productive way, because if the top men attempt to lay out the plan, large numbers of teachers may be unwilling to support it except in symbolic terms.

Similarly, peak needs for all areas of instruction could be determined and a comprehensive list prepared each spring for the substitute-teacher needs of the following year. Copies of the statements of needs could be sent home to each parent; they could be distributed to leading clubs in the community; they could be given to newspapers with invitations to all persons interested to write for bulletins on substitute-teacher service and application forms.

Persons applying for substitute-teacher positions, after they have filed appropriate applications, should be requested to interview persons in the areas where they would be used. Persons to interview prospects should be selected by the staff and the administrative agents cooperatively. Just as much care should be exercised in checking the professional and personal qualifications of substitute teachers as is exercised in selecting full-time employees.<sup>18</sup>

After a sufficient number of persons have been recruited to meet the expected peak loads for the coming year, the school should call all such people together for the purpose of training them for their jobs, should they occur.

The workshop technique would be most effective. Substitutes should meet as a group to hear administrators discuss over-all policy and then "break up" into smaller groups with competent regular teachers as leaders and consultants to discuss the more specific responsibilities in the areas of service. For example, one group might be led by a kindergarten teacher and selected teachers of grades 1, 2, and 3. These four might meet with those substitutes who were to be called upon to substitute in grades K through 3. Similar small group meetings for those who were expecting to substitute in other areas could be arranged. Naturally the procedure to be followed would vary with each community. In small communities the substitute teachers should probably meet with the entire staff.

Teachers should be encouraged to develop a system for evaluating the

<sup>18</sup> See chapter on Selection of Teachers.



services of substitute teachers so that unsatisfactory substitutes could be eliminated from the active list, or at least relegated to the bottom positions on the list so they would seldom be used.

During the school year there should be a series of meetings for substitute teachers conducted by professional members of the staff (teachers, principals, and others) for the purpose of acquainting them with new developments in the schools, new points of view, changes of purpose, changes in procedures, and a host of other important matters. Attendance at these meetings should be optional, but all those on the substitute list should be notified. Furthermore, attendance at such meetings could be regarded as one important factor in connection with evaluation. If a teacher consistently refused to attend, the school would be thoroughly justified in relegating such a person to the bottom of the list or removing his name entirely. Here again, the professional staff in the school who are to benefit from the program for granting short leaves should be held responsible for developing a good program of in-service training of substitutes. *As a profession, we cannot ask for public acceptance of a program for granting teachers leaves of absence with pay unless we are willing to develop a sound plan for providing competent substitutes to take our places when we are absent. We must be more than willing; we must actually do the job. If we fail, we do not deserve such leaves.*

We have another obligation, namely, to inform our colleagues in other schools of our actions. This means that more articles should appear in the educational journals telling of our plans so that other teachers in other schools can benefit from our experience. This type of action would be a definite sign of professional maturation.

### *Substitutes for Longer Periods*

Immediately after the receipt of a request for an extended leave of absence, the superintendent of schools should see that a set of specifications are prepared for the teacher to serve as the replacement. The best way to start the procedure is to require, as one of the prerequisites to granting leave, that the teacher requesting the leave prepare, as outlined in Chapter 3 of this book, a set of specifications for the replacement teacher and to prepare a questionnaire to be sent to such applicants. The principal in the building where the teacher works, and the superintendent or his designated assistant, should review and modify the specifications and the application blank.

Copies of the specifications should then be sent to teacher-training agencies with a letter describing the entire situation, pointing out the temporary nature of the position to be filled, indicating the salary to be paid, and inviting the college to nominate persons who would be interested and who are qualified.



Furthermore, cooperative arrangements between public schools and state-supported teacher-educating agencies might be developed which would be of great value both to the public schools and to the teacher-educating institutions.

COOPERATIVE PLAN FOR SUPPLYING PUBLIC SCHOOLS  
WITH TEACHERS TO REPLACE THOSE ON A YEAR'S LEAVE

1. In the fall preceding the September when a teacher is to begin his leave of absence, notify the college of education or teachers' college that a specific teacher is to be on leave of absence the following year. This notice should give full details concerning the nature of the work being done by the teacher granted the leave.
2. Invite the college to assign one or more promising seniors to do "practice teaching" with the teacher who expects to go on leave. This practice teaching should be done during the first or second semester in the year preceding the one during which the teacher is on leave.
3. Agree to supply supervision for the practice teachers by the principal of the building, by the teacher who is to go on leave, and by other supervisory agents.
4. Invite the college to participate in the supervision of practice teachers.
5. Inform the practice teachers that one will be selected to replace the teacher on leave at the beginning salary rate.
6. Develop, cooperatively, a plan by which the college accepts the year of teaching as an internship program for teachers seeking the master's degree or fifth-year certificate, supplementing this internship with course work, during the summers preceding and following the internship, and professional-development workshops for interns on Saturdays of each semester, at which time several interns work with public school leaders and college professors to find solutions to the problems of the interns.

If the intern could earn seven graduate hours each summer, eight graduate hours in the professional-development workshops, and four graduate hours for actual internship under supervision, such a person would have a total of twenty-six graduate credits at the end of the summer following the year of internship.

If the quality of work done in course work and as an intern warranted it, the teacher could be granted the master's degree in August following the year served as an intern.

This would be a *real, practical, cooperatively operated fifth-year* program of teacher education.

7. Invite the college to participate in observation of and supervision of the intern during his period of service, and cooperatively develop with the college a plan for evaluation of the services of the intern.
8. Agree to assist successful interns in securing permanent employment, and assure such successful intern of preference in employing new teachers in the system where the intern actually served.
9. Agree that if the intern is employed by the local school permanently, he



will be placed on the salary schedule. If such intern has earned the master's degree as outlined in item 6, the teacher would be put on the master's schedule.

10. Agree to cooperate with the college in offering the professional-development seminars on Saturdays.

The above-described practice would be of tremendous value in educating teachers because teachers doing practice teaching would be greatly motivated to learn their jobs well, cooperating teachers would be highly motivated to do a superior job of supervision because they would realize that they were training their own temporary replacements, principals and supervisors would be highly motivated because they would be concerned with helping these young people meet problems which would greatly simplify their own efforts the following year, and college professors would be motivated because of the cooperative nature of the responsibility. Since motivation is the central problem in learning, practice teaching would be far more valuable to all concerned.

Colleges have been seeking ways to develop internship programs. The general public hopes for the day when teaching will be as professional as medicine, that a year of internship with appropriate supervision will be part of every teacher-education program. Professional teachers realize the need for an internship year. Here is an opportunity to make such a program possible.

Here, indeed, is a real chance for school systems to do ten things of great importance.

1. Provide extended leaves with pay to experienced teachers at little cost to the district.
2. Secure competently trained and adequately supervised substitute teachers.
3. Contribute to the improvement of teacher education.
4. Establish much better relationships between schools and teacher-educating agencies.
5. Contribute greatly to maturation of the teaching profession.
6. Make teacher training itself far more realistic and practical.
7. Educate some college professors who have been too long removed from the classrooms in public schools.
8. Secure expert supervision in special areas.
9. Have an opportunity to try out teachers and thereby locate most promising persons.
10. Develop excellent morale in the profession.

In the event that teacher-educating agencies cannot supply "internship personnel," the school should seek applicants for the temporary assignment by the methods suggested in Chapter 3. Schools may even find that a teacher on the substitute list is eminently qualified to do the job and very willing to undertake it.



Here, as in other cases, the only obstacles which are significant are those of unwillingness to let teachers participate in planning, unwillingness to make inquiry, ignorance of the methods of making inquiry, or complete stagnation of leadership. None of these obstacles is insurmountable. The schools desperately need men and women who can utilize intelligence to attack their own problems with energy, enthusiasm, and imagination.

Those who are in charge of the schools should observe the principles suggested by Turner, but, in addition, if they are to seek the achievement of high morale, mental and physical health of both teachers and children, more intelligent methods for solving substitute-teacher problems, greater mutuality among members of the profession, and increased creativity on the part of regular and substitute teachers, they should enlist the energies of the professional workers in the whole process of selecting, educating, orienting, and evaluating substitute teachers. This is a challenge to school managers to become educational leaders rather than mere managers. It will not be easy, but it will yield large dividends in terms of improved teaching-learning situations and in terms of increased public respect for the teaching profession.

### SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. How are substitute teachers selected in your school?
2. What part do teachers in your school have in educating substitute teachers in service?
3. Who evaluates the work of substitute teachers in your school?
4. What is the salary plan for substitutes in your school?
5. Do substitutes in your school feel that they play significant roles as members of the teaching staff?
6. What are the requirements for being placed on the substitute list in your school?
7. Evaluate the substitute-teacher program by use of the principles suggested by Turner.
8. What is the reaction of parents and of children in your community to substitute-teacher service?
9. Do you believe that some teachers are elated over apparent failure of their substitutes because it makes them "look better"?

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## CHAPTER 13    *Problems Pertaining to the Nonprofessional Staff*

Every school administrator realizes that janitors are very important people in the public schools. Their attitudes toward teachers, pupils, parents, and administration are extremely important. Disputes between teachers and janitors cause serious difficulties; hence, every effort should be made to establish the kind of rapport between teachers and janitors which is wholesome. A wise superintendent or a wise principal realizes that custodians are co-workers in the process of educating children. Wise leaders exercise great care in the selection of such persons; they do not make the mistake of employing men and women simply because they need work or because they are friends of political bigwigs in the community. It is a sad error for boards of education to employ janitors who have not been recommended by the superintendent of schools.

There is a movement in most schools to change the title of janitor to custodian because so many people have thought of janitors in terms of disrespect. Administrators should encourage this trend. The custodian's job is an extremely important one. He has responsibility for the care of the community's expensive plant and responsibility to exercise wise use of supplies, he is the chief housekeeper, he is responsible for many important aspects of safety for children, he must maintain the building temperature so that children will be in a healthful environment, he often plays the role of guidance agent for children, and he plays an important part in interpreting the school to the public. Teachers need to understand the job of the custodian and to realize the importance of the position.

An adaptation of a revealing story about Ole, the Swedish janitor, originally told by Dulebohn,<sup>1</sup> illustrates the responsibilities, problems, and reactions of janitors and custodians. Ole spoke somewhat as follows:

<sup>1</sup> Irl H. Dulebohn, cited by A. D. Brainard, *Handbook for Custodians*, University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln, 1948.



Ay yust lak to see dem fallars be yanitor, by golly, yust von week. Ay bet you, by yimminy, dey not say it so easy yob. Ay come here five o'clock and make fire. Ay dust and clean rooms. Ay shovel snow from walks and steps so teachers don't get stockings vet. Ay fix fires again, and go home for breakfast. On vay back to vurk ay go past Tony's place and they say, "Yee, you got easy yob." Tam loafers! Dey make me mad. Ay put in four hours hard vurk before dey efen vake up. Den dey tal me ay got easy yob! Ay tal you ay yust lak to see dem fallars clean floors, dust furniture, shovel coal, and haul ashes all day from fife o'clock morning to ten o'clock night!

Tam kids! Dey make me mad, too. Dey vant everyting. "Where's my fiddle?" "Where's my lunch pail?" "Where's my rubbers?" "Ole, you find my mittens?" "Ole, please unlock my locker"—so ay climb to top floor and open locker to get book to tak home so hiss fadder can vurk his arithmetics. Ay tal you, der're regular defils, dem kids. Dey trow paper on floor and ven ay stoop over to pick it up, dey bump me from behind and say, "S'cuse me." If ay vass teacher, ay vould beat hal out of dem. Ay yust lak to get my hands on dem kids vunce.

Teachers iss vorser dan kids. Dey always vant someting. Vun day it iss, "Ole, von't you move my desk?" Next day iss, "Ole, move it back"—Ole, do diss—Ole, do dat, always Ole do someting. Dey lets dem kids vittle names on desks. Dey lets dem drag mud on waxed floors. Den ven room is looking voorst, dey tal principal and he giff me hal. Yee, diss yanitor bisssiss iss terrible. And always about heat! Dey comes in here, dem teachers, wearing short sleefs and thin sometings for dresses in vintertime, and say room iss too cold. Ay turn on heat—and den ay catch hal from kids—iss too hot! Vunce ay tal teacher to put on more clothes, and she try get me fired and school board giff me hal.

Yee viss, ven ay vass miner all ay do vass mine coal. Here ay do everyting. Ven lights go out, ay got to be 'lectrician—ven vater pipes leak, ay got to be plumber; ven rope break on flag pole, ay got to climb pole. You tink ay got easy yob?

Ven summer comes, ay gets cricks in back from vashing ceilings. Ay fix chairs, ay fix desks, ay fix shades, ay fix shelfes, ay fix locks, ay fix showers—ay lak to fix some of dem kids and some of dem teachers, dots vat ay lak to fix. Den ven ay am resting, ay mow lawns, ay trim hedge, ay dig veeds, and yust ven ay gets all diss done and vindows vashed and floors waxed—yust ven ay gets everyting spick-and-span, dem kids and dem teachers come back again. Yee, it's fierce, diss yanitor bisssiss.

Administrators should remember that custodians are human beings, too, and that as human beings they should be treated as such. They should try to see that pupils and teachers respect the job of the custodian; that they do not scatter paper on the floor; that they do not soil the windows; that they do not leave articles such as pens, pencils, and books or papers on the desks; that they do not bring excess dirt into the buildings.

Teachers should be directed to send their complaints about the custo-



dian in writing to the principal—they should never be taken directly to the custodian. Custodians should be complimented directly by teachers, and teachers should send written notes of commendation regarding custodians to the principal.

In Galva, Ill., teachers and administrators prepared articles for the local newspaper making public their appreciation of the fine work done by custodians. The effect was amazing. Parents, teachers, children, and even visitors from other communities were continually speaking words of praise concerning the excellent condition of the buildings. One custodian, Forrest Hammerberg, attempting to live up to the role in which he was cast, was sometimes greeted by visitors as the principal. Giving custodians public credit not only developed unusual rapport between teachers and custodians, but it caused everyone in the schools to be proud of the schools. Actually, the procedures saved the community thousands of dollars in maintenance costs.

Some custodians are not amenable to this sort of cooperative effort, but nearly all of them are. One certain way to destroy teacher-custodian relationships is for teachers to assume superior attitudes. Teachers may be better educated than custodians, but they are not one whit more human.

In many school systems custodial employees are employed directly by the board of education without reference to participation of professional personnel in their selection. Such practice is inimical to the welfare of children, it is not for the best interests of the teachers, and it is likely to result in poor morale. Administrators and teachers should do all in their power to change such bad practice.

Custodians should be selected in much the same manner as teachers are selected. Specifications should be drawn by the professional staff and by the board of education in a cooperative way. Applicants should be screened by the professional staff, and the superintendent should recommend applicants to the board. No custodian should be employed unless his employment is recommended by the administrative head of the school system.

Custodians should be responsible to principals, then to superintendents, and through the superintendent, to the board. Direct responsibility to the board breeds ill will, poor morale, and decreased effectiveness of the school program. Administrators and teachers should seek appropriate employment practices for the custodial staff.

Superintendents, principals, and teachers should remember that the professional staff and nonprofessional workers are intimately concerned with the same problems, although in most respects from different points of view. When they forget this, they should pause long enough to remember that teachers and administrators are not very far from the days of the



little red schoolhouse when teachers arrived early and were not ashamed to kindle the fires in the old wood-burning stoves, staying late to wield the broom with their own educated hands.

Administrators and custodians should make frequent building inspections together for the specific purpose of developing cooperative approaches to problems of building maintenance. Teachers and custodians should hold conferences to discuss their mutual problems, and from time to time all the nonprofessional workers should be included in the social affairs of the school. It is important that nonprofessional employees should be aware of the fact that teachers and administrators know the importance of the job of the janitor, bus driver, custodian, foreman, engineer, or groundsman.

At the Fort Trumbull Branch of the University of Connecticut, the professional staff requested the director to include all maintenance personnel, all custodial employees, all secretarial workers, and all nonprofessional employees on the invitation list to the president's reception, which was annually arranged by the director. The invitations were sent as requested, and large numbers of the nonprofessional workers and their wives, husbands, or sweethearts appeared. It is significant that the president was unable to distinguish between professional and nonprofessional employees, either in dress or in conduct. The effect upon the morale of the nonprofessional employees was electric. A bond of comradeship in common purpose was established which resulted in such reactions as that of the plumber quoted in the first chapter.

Since custodians are so important in a school system, much more care should be exercised in their selection. Unfortunately, selection of custodians is far from satisfactory. Too frequently selection is based upon friendship, political patronage, desire to assist the aged and infirm, and desire to help worthy citizens who are unemployed. The schools should never be operated as a relief agency or as a refuge for the aged and infirm. The schools should be operated for the children.

In-service education programs for custodians and other maintenance employees have proved to be very worthwhile. Such training programs have been held in many cities and in many universities. Short courses for custodians are presently offered in such places as the University of California, University of Wisconsin, University of Texas, Purdue University, Iowa State College, Michigan State College, Kent State University, Ohio State University, and other colleges.

Since the custodial personnel has often been poorly selected and since provisions for improving efficiency while on the job have, generally, been meager, fringe benefits for maintenance workers in the schools have been inadequately provided. There is a trend, however, toward providing retirement systems for custodians and other noncertified personnel.



Load for janitors and custodians is frequently a serious problem. The most common plan for determining load is based upon the amount of floor space to be supervised, with appropriate corrections made for such other variables as type of heating plant, types of cleaning equipment, size of site to be cared for, and age of buildings.

School administrators can solve many of the important problems pertaining to custodial staff by arranging for conferences between principals, board members, teachers, and the custodial staff for the purpose of devising plans for equalization of load, and of developing school policies which are likely to make the job of the custodian more satisfying and rewarding to all concerned.

No matter what school managers do, the most crucial difficulty lies embedded in attitudes. This goes back to the Greeks, who believed that the useful arts were carried on by slaves and "base mechanics." Such people were held in very low esteem. Mass production in our world today has too often reenforced these ancient prejudices. Mechanical skill and mechanical work are too frequently placed as opposites to the aesthetic and the respected. Mere changes in wages, hours, sanitary conditions, retirement benefits, and sick-leave benefits are of little avail in developing *esprit de corps* among nonprofessional workers unless there is a noticeable change in the social recognition given to these workers. There is nothing in the nature of custodial work per se that is an insuperable obstacle to the development of an awareness on the part of the worker that his own labor is contributing to the important task of educating the young.

More attention should be given to the development of plans of action for educating maintenance personnel in the areas of educational understanding. It is important that custodians learn better ways of cleaning, mopping, and cleaning blackboards, but it is far more important that they acquire insight concerning the whole program of education. Just as physical life cannot exist without the eating of food, so the educational value of a janitor cannot exist without his learning something about the educational process and the school. If there is no linkage between the job of the maintenance worker and the over-all educational enterprise, teaching and custodial efforts cease to have unitary connections with one another, and irritating problems develop everywhere. Then teachers and janitors work at cross-purposes; they develop distinctly different feelings toward the school and toward children; they draw farther and farther apart in their attitudes toward the important aspects of public education. It is not enough to train custodians to be better workers; it is not enough to acquaint teachers with the duties and responsibilities of the janitors. Custodians must be brought closer and closer to the professional staff by means of a program of interaction and mutual discussion



which seeks to develop common purposes and common goals, which results in maintenance workers becoming more like teachers in their understandings of the program, and which results in teachers becoming more like janitors in their understanding of the problems of school management and control. The only form of association that is truly human is participation in the development of meanings. To be human breaks through the barriers which divide human beings; to break down the barriers leads to becoming human; the nonprofessional workers in the school are human, too.

What has been written about the custodial and maintenance staff might well have been written about secretarial workers, cafeteria workers, and all other noncertified personnel.

The clerical staff should be an integral part of the school organization. Clerks, stenographers, bookkeepers, and other representatives of the clerical staff have important jobs to do, and each of these jobs entails understanding of the total educational program.

Each school system should establish an in-service education program for clerical workers designed to achieve two major goals: (1) increased understanding of the important role of clerical work in the operation of the educational enterprise, and (2) increased technical skill in the area of assignment.

Office workers are subject to many influences which affect their attitudes, their sense of belonging, their prestige, and their security. Such workers usually hold positions somewhere between professional workers and custodians in terms of the respect which co-workers and pupils assign them. Usually holding a desk job has implied that the worker possessed sufficient intelligence to avoid the burden of physical labor but not quite enough to be qualified for a professional position.

There is a tendency for office workers, on the other hand, to identify themselves more closely with managers than with teachers. In a very large part this is the result of being assigned, in the main, to do work which is directly connected with the detail assignments of the managers. Moreover, office workers are generally closer to management activities and decisions; they are frequently "in the know," and as a result, they tend to feel somewhat superior to many teachers in the system. This feeling sometimes becomes so pronounced that office workers regard teachers as "outsiders." Such attitudes create an entirely different type of personnel problem, one which is almost the opposite of the problems of the custodians, who tend to feel that they are "beneath" the teaching profession. This problem is made more difficult by the fact that the office worker is usually excused from all in-service education activities, special school assignments, and supervision of extracurricular activities.

Another problem develops as a result of the marked difference in



attitudes expressed by pupils toward clerical employees as contrasted with their attitudes toward teachers. Office workers do not assign marks, they have little if any jurisdiction over student conduct, and they are frequently more nearly the age of pupils. As a result, children in school often develop closer kinship with office workers than with teachers, a fact which frequently results in petty envy on the part of teachers.

As a result of observing that office workers are closer to administration as well as closer to pupils, many teachers look upon office workers with suspicion and envy. This situation is aggravated if the office workers are "in the know" with respect to the confidential activities of the board of education.

In one city where the writer was superintendent of schools, all telephone calls were routed through a central switchboard, operated by an employee who had served the board of education for many years. The switchboard operator, upon orders of the board of education, "listened in" on telephone conversations between teachers and administrative officers and between principals and other administrative officers. The situation was discovered by the superintendent as a result of refusal of teachers and principals to talk over the phone; they preferred to make a special trip to the superintendent's office to talk matters over in person.

The author has discovered that this sort of "spy system," in which clerical workers are assigned the job of "sleuthing" for the board of education or for administrative officers, is not as uncommon as one would believe. He was telling about his own experiences in this regard in a graduate class recently only to discover that nearly one-third of those in his class of sixty-five reported similar experiences in their own systems. One superintendent proudly reported to the writer that his personal secretary was his chief source of teacher evaluation, that he really "got the low-down" on his teachers through the efforts of his secretary! It is to be hoped that this type of arrangement occurs only once in a generation, but it is not safe to assert that it does.

There is a tendency for office workers to develop undemocratic attitudes. This tendency develops from the Horatio Alger concept, which is all too firmly embedded in American tradition. There is a rather widespread belief that by knowing the right people, and by pleasing them, the worker can be assigned to a more lucrative position which may carry with it additional prestige and power. Furthermore, office practice is frequently traditionalized, loaded with red tape, and bureaucratic.

Occasionally school managers, superintendents, principals, supervisors, and others fall prey to the temptation to allow clerical workers to formulate educational policies or to make educational decisions in their absence. When this happens, serious problems usually arise.

Another practice which frequently creates serious personnel problems



is that of appointing friends of board members or friends of school administrators to secretarial positions. Even though such appointments may result in securing the finest and most capable workers, the experience of leading administrators has demonstrated that the practice may create difficulties which jeopardize the effectiveness of the whole program.<sup>2</sup>

School managers should give careful consideration to the job of making crystal clear, to all concerned, the duties, responsibilities, and limitations of office workers. If the duties of office workers are professional in character, even to a small degree, the administrator is wise if he will arrange for members of the teaching profession to assist him in developing the statement of duties, responsibilities, and limitations.

If an office worker is to be given any sizable part in the determination of educational policies which affect teachers, such an employee should be educated as a teacher as well as a clerical worker. To permit a clerk whose educational preparation consists of high school graduation plus one year at a business college to make professional decisions affecting teachers is usually a quick route to lowered morale.

In meeting the personnel problems of clerical workers, the following policies should be observed:

1. Employment of nonprofessional personnel should be made only upon recommendation of members of the professional staff (superintendent, principal, supervisor, teacher, consultant, physician, etc.).
2. Specifications for the type of person needed should be carefully prepared by the professional staff members affected.
3. Carefully developed statements of duties, responsibilities, and limitations of responsibility should be devised by the professional staff.
4. Whenever the statement of duties and responsibilities includes those which are professional in nature, the specifications should include professional education essential to the development of morale.
5. Teachers and other professional workers should be given an opportunity to evaluate the work of office workers who have professional duties.
6. Clerical and office workers should be given many opportunities to work with teachers on problems pertaining to their duties.
7. Clerical and office workers should be included in some of the social affairs of the entire staff.
8. In-service education on programs for clerical and office workers should be provided and should include opportunities to attend university extension classes, special in-service education activities in universities designed to promote growth of secretarial or clerical workers, and local workshops.
9. Secretarial and clerical workers should be encouraged to organize and to become members of the National Association of School Secretaries, which endeavors to professionalize the job of the office worker.

<sup>2</sup>David Hulburd, *This Happened in Pasadena*, pp. 45-49, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1951.



10. Retirement programs, sick-leave programs, and other fringe benefits should be provided for clerical workers.
11. The management of secretarial and clerical assignments, duties, and responsibilities should be left entirely to the professional staff. Boards of education should have no rights to employ such persons without the specific recommendation of the superintendent of schools.

The basic principles concerning the problems of the professional personnel apply to nonprofessional workers as well. The problems involved in causing the employee to understand, accept, and practice what is democratically taught are the same. There should be careful selection, well-developed orientation programs, cooperative action, adequate salaries, appropriate fringe benefits, and mutuality, just as with the professional personnel.

### SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. What could be done in your school to improve teacher-janitor relations?
2. Do you think Ole, the janitor, had a point? Why?
3. Evaluate the relationship in your school between clerical workers and the professional staff.
4. To whom are maintenance employees in your school responsible?
5. What are the personnel problems of nonprofessional employees in your school?
6. Do the janitors in your school belong to a union? What are the advantages and disadvantages of janitors' unions?

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## CHAPTER 14 *Professional Ethics*

A growing interest in the development of professional ethics has resulted from a general growth of interest in the whole field of social morality. The physician and the lawyer long ago recognized an obligation to the people and to themselves to state clearly and concisely what they conceived to be the ethical relations engendered by their professional activities. These they set forth in printed form. Unfortunately, the attitudes of physicians and lawyers toward their codes have not always been such as to win public confidence. The codes were written in generalities and as more or less trite statements; practice continued to be more in the letter of the codes than in the spirit of them.

Recently there has been a growing awareness of the need for more functional codes of ethics among businessmen, professional groups, and others. Men and women have come to realize that the law as an agency of public control is not adaptable to many of the basic social purposes of groups. Control by law must be general in scope; the moment it attempts to cope with the more complex and intricate social situations growing out of a specific professional service, it interferes with personal rights and with the prerogatives which the people involved believe they are entitled to have. For this reason, business and professional groups have established voluntary associations, fairly homogeneous in character, to establish rules, regulations, and standards which can be applied by the group to an individual who is a member thereof. Thus codes have been formulated, committees have been established to evaluate the work of individuals by means of the codes, and sanctions have been determined to enforce the spirit as well as the letter of the codes.

In this discussion we are not primarily concerned with what is commonly called "business ethics"; we are, on the other hand, chiefly concerned with "professional ethics." To understand the problem, therefore, it seems clear that we should define what is meant by "profession." There is much quarreling among teachers about the professional character of the work of a teacher. Some assert that teachers are professional people, while others look upon them as employees, laborers, or workers.



Fundamentally, a profession consists of a limited and clearly marked group of people, members of which are especially educated to perform certain functions better than their fellow men. Usually the phrase "especially educated" means education by colleges, universities, and similar agencies. Of course, there are situations in which education may mean "experience" in terms of individualized study with a master. Thus some men become attorneys by "reading law" under the direction of legally licensed members of the bar association, but even this practice is fading away.

Not all attorneys are members of the American Bar Association, and not all physicians are members of the American Medical Association. The term "professional" probably is related to the degree or nature of selection of those who are to be admitted to membership in the group. Even in business circles this last assumption seems to be supported. Rotary International, for example, has selected men and has had a considerable effect upon general business practices, so much so that the organization has acquired world-wide attention. Organizations such as Kiwanis and Lions Clubs have had similar influences which, as the organizations grow in terms of years of existence, will doubtless be recognized in the same manner and to equal extent. Membership in such clubs is by invitation; selection takes place.

However, mere selectivity is only a small factor in the definition of a profession. Just as important as selection is a clear demarcation of function. The notary public who sets himself up as a legal consultant for harried citizens about March 15 performs some of the functions of a lawyer, but he is not willing to spend the time, energy, and money to be educated in a law school. He cannot be considered as a member of the profession of lawyers because he cannot perform more than one or two of the simple functions of attorneys. Similarly there are contractors who parade as engineers because they can perform a few of the functions of the engineer. Such men are not recognized as members of the profession of engineering for two reasons: first, they were not educated in engineering schools, and second, they can perform only a very few functions of the engineer.

Ole, the "bonesetter" in a small city in the Middle West,<sup>1</sup> had learned certain methods of manipulation of muscles and bones from his father in Sweden. He was not regarded as a member of the profession of medicine for three reasons, even though he served many people to their satisfaction. First, he had never been educated in a medical school, second, he could perform only a very limited number of functions of a physician, and third, he had no license.

This attribute of behavior, namely, a definite commitment to perform

<sup>1</sup> Galva, Ill.



certain functions, seems to be a fundamental characteristic of a profession. A person who is a member of a profession must indicate clearly what his functions are and must confine his major activities to the performance of those functions. If an association fails to define the function of those who are members thereof, it can scarcely be termed a professional organization. If it fails to do so, the acts of individual members may be so ambiguous and so marginal that the general public has little faith in the organization.

The American Bar Association has been confronted with this difficulty in a limited fashion. It has confused the function of representing clients in the courts with the function of acting as financial agents for clients. In England these two functions are separated, and two distinct professions have developed. The "barrister" functions as a representative of a client in court, while a "solicitor" performs the second function. It is probable that the majority of cases of disbarment from the American Bar Association have resulted from confusion of these two functions.

There is a difference between an amateur and a professional. While it is generally recognized that amateur baseball players, amateur football players, and amateur basketball players are highly skilled people in their games, those who have watched "professional athletic sports" readily recognize that the professionals are far more skilled. The professional person is one who is much more capable of performing a given task than those who patronize him or employ him. "Professional status" implies raising of standards to such a level that only the skilled are admitted, so that the amateurs are excluded. Many voluntary organizations have failed to recognize this aspect of professionalization. They admit anybody into the fold who can boast a few days of amateur experience and who can pay the small amount of money necessary to secure a membership card.

Engineering has suffered severely from confusion of functions. Such terms as "human engineering," meaning "management of men," has muddled the waters considerably. "Social engineering" is another term which has confused the professional status of engineering. Both of these terms have developed as a result of a strong belief that engineers should have more preparation in the human and social areas, as a result of a situation which engineers themselves are attempting to correct. Actually, the engineers find it increasingly necessary to set higher standards for admission to the profession. Even so, there are many cities in which a man who shakes hands well, a man who makes friends easily, a man who has political connections is selected as the city engineer in preference to a man who has been educationally and technically trained for the job. Such men may be called engineers, but they are not considered members of the engineering profession.

Professional training usually involves a period of apprenticeship before



one is entitled to engage, on his own, as a professional. Instead of going into practice directly from the medical school, the physician must become an intern. Increasingly, graduates of law schools are seeking experience with law firms for a few years before embarking on programs of their own. In colleges and universities a teacher is expected to serve several years as an instructor before he acquires "professional status." The point is that the selective process of education should not stop with academic life if the person involved is to be counted as a member of a profession. Professional membership or status implies continual growth; it implies improvement.

Another characteristic of a profession is that those engaged in it continuously encourage the best types of young men and women to enter it; the members of the profession have caught the service aspect of their work, and they seek out those among the young who would be a credit to the cause and invite them to educate themselves for the profession. A member of a profession regards the welfare of those with whom he works as a matter of sacred trust to be preferred to personal selfish gain. He, therefore, seeks promising recruits for the profession.

Similarly, a profession implies that each member thereof will do his best to refrain from bringing other members into disrepute. To this end codes of ethics are prepared. An unpleasant and distasteful part of professional status is the courage and willingness to eliminate members who have proved themselves to be unfit. In a profession every member thereof must be his brother's keeper; he is obligated to keep out those who are unfit; he is obligated to expel those who have been admitted but who later are found to be unfit. A profession is obligated to define its own relations to society in general. It must, therefore, establish standards of conduct which it makes public and which it stands ready to enforce upon its membership. And finally, a professional person is one who is capable of and who is willing to exert leadership in his community, in his professional organization, and in his dealings with those with whom he works.

### *Is Teaching a Profession?*

This oft-repeated question deserves an answer. The answer will have much to do with subsequent assertions concerning the function of teacher groups in the preparation of codes of ethics. A code of ethics will not make teaching a profession unless the vocation of teaching has other inherent characteristics of a professional nature.

Is teaching limited to those who are especially educated to perform certain functions better than their fellow men? The answer, sadly enough, is "no." We find persons assigned to teach in the primary grades of the elementary schools who graduated from college without any thought of



teaching small children. Some of them have been issued "temporary certificates" because of the tremendous teacher shortages. Still others have been employed before certification laws required special training for teaching small children. In some states anybody who has a college diploma is considered capable of teaching small children. There are teachers in the public schools with six weeks of training beyond high school; there are those with one year of training beyond high school; there are those with only two years of training beyond high school. Salary schedules in many school systems take this sort of inadequate preparation into account and, by so doing, recognize it.

We find teachers in the upper grades of the elementary schools who, in their collegiate days, never dreamed of entering the profession of teaching. We have teachers in the junior high schools who know nothing about the basic purposes and goals of the junior high school and who know little more than a considerable number of facts in a specific field. We have secondary school teachers who know less about their particular subjects than many who live in the community, and considerably less about children and their problems than many parents.

Until teachers know much more about the following than the rank and file of citizens in the community, teaching cannot be considered a profession on the first count.

1. How to supply leadership in group-thinking situations; how to participate in such situations with children.
2. How to study and analyze the whole cultural situation of the child and of children to discover basic needs, interests, and problems.
3. How to marshal and mobilize the facts learned in item 2 to develop a better program for child growth.
4. How to observe the child and how to organize the data collected into meaningful procedures for use in guiding learning.
5. How to participate with learners in the derivation of effective teaching-learning policies, procedures, and units of instruction.
6. How to interpret the educational program to the people.
7. How to utilize community resources for the education of children.
8. How to organize the teaching-learning situation so that children will actually become capable of marshaling and mobilizing facts, information, and skills for the purpose of making decisions.
9. How to direct the learning of children so that they will emerge from the schools much more capable of making and much more willing to make the socio-moral decisions of their lives.
10. How to translate subject matter into open doors of vocational choice.
11. How to help parents organize their lives so that children will have homes more conducive to learning.

As long as the teachers' organizations admit anyone to membership in the organization who is willing to pay dues and who "is engaged in teach-



ing or other educational work" or without regard to reasonably high standards, we cannot look upon teaching as a profession. If we would make teaching a profession, our first step is to limit membership to persons who have met professional standards which we ourselves establish. We cannot "pass the buck" to legal agencies. As was pointed out earlier, control by law is too general in scope to be a criterion of professional status.

Does the teaching group clearly demarcate its function? The answer is "no." Some teachers seem to feel that teachers should be engaged in every conceivable aspect of the life of the child. In spite of the fact that the teacher has contact with the child less than 15 per cent of the time between the ages of 6 and 18, the teacher is expected to perform miracles by (1) teaching the child the fundamentals of communication, (2) teaching the child subject matter and skills considered by the community to be important, (3) teaching the child how to utilize what he has learned to make judgments of practice, (4) teaching the child wholesome social attitudes, (5) teaching the child "spiritual and ethical values," (6) teaching the child to respect his parents, (7) teaching the child to obey the laws of the community, (8) teaching the child to be patriotic, (9) teaching the child to be clean and well physically, (10) teaching the child to conform to moral codes, (11) teaching the child to love his fellow men, and (12) teaching the child to do many things which the community wants done.

Furthermore, teachers are expected to become Sunday-school teachers, boy-scout leaders, girl-scout leaders, key persons in the civic clubs, organizers of the Red Cross drive, and to assume responsibility in a thousand and one other enterprises which parents or others ought to assume.

All too often, teachers have become all things to people. One teacher tells the story that she spent ten minutes each day watching the streamlined train go through the city at 100 miles per hour. According to the story, when she was asked why she watched that train every day, she replied, "It's the only thing that goes through this town that I don't have to push."

In addition to performing the functions of a teacher, many teachers find themselves working as pseudo clinical psychologists, pseudo experts on family squabbles, authorities on world affairs, encyclopedias of information, health consultants, mental-hygiene experts, placement officers, juvenile-delinquency experts, court judges, and general guardians of child welfare. No teacher can be expected to be all these and be a professional person. A lawyer has certain areas in which he expects to give service; outside those areas he is usually not required to function. A physician has well-defined areas in which he is expected to render service.



The dentist confines his service to remaking the mouths of people. But the teacher has come to be looked upon as the learning expert, spiritual savior, occupational guide, the parent *in absentia*, moral expert, and forecaster of the future of the child.

No one can deny that teachers have responsibilities in all the areas mentioned, but if teaching is to become a profession, it must give serious consideration to clearer demarcation of its function. The "teaching profession" should allocate much greater responsibility to the home and to other agencies of the community than is now the case.

But in another way, teaching is a profession. In general, teachers are committed to perform certain social functions. Teachers believe that they have an important job to perform, that they should play their roles well in the fundamental task of teaching children the essential communicative skills; the important information about their heritage; a belief in and commitment to democracy; wholesome social attitudes; the ability to inquire and the ability to make such inquiring useful for the betterment of society; the ability to mobilize information, facts, and skills to make intelligent choices; the ability to continue their education, if desired; and the ability to get a job and to earn a living. In this sense, teaching is a profession.

However, many teachers are amateurs rather than professionals. No reference is intended here to deprecate the work of beginning teachers who may or may not be amateurs. Many teachers are so grossly unskilled that children learn in spite of their tutelage. Many teachers are no better teachers than the rank and file of college-trained people in the community would be if placed in the classroom; still others are no better teachers than some of those in the community who have had no formal education beyond the secondary school. In every area of teaching, there are teachers whose educational program was designed to prepare them specifically for some other vocation. Somehow, they drifted into the teaching field.

Unfortunately, many laymen, college graduates, college professors, and teachers are of the opinion that all that is required of a teacher is that the teacher be an expert in some area such as chemistry, physics, history, or mathematics. Similarly, there are those who think that if a teacher has earned credit in eighteen semester hours of "professional education courses," he is qualified to teach. Actually, neither of these groups is correct. A teacher, if he is to be more skilled than those who patronize him, should be unusually well grounded in the subject matter which is to be the vehicle of classroom work, and at the same time should be unusually well prepared in the techniques of organizing and administering the learning situation. A professional teacher should have unusual understanding of the nature of the learning process, a thoroughgoing, well-defined, and applicable philosophy of life, of democracy, and of



education, and he should have the ability to square his activities with his knowledge of learning and with his goals.

A few years ago a superintendent and the professional staff of a school system made a careful study of the educational preparation of teachers in the elementary schools. One of the facts discovered was startling. The elementary school teachers reported that on the average they had slightly less than four semester hours of college training in the field of teaching reading. When one considers that this represents about one-thirtieth of the study in college and that reading is about one-half the job in the elementary schools, there is reason for asserting that many teachers are rank amateurs, that they are not professionals.

The fault, in most cases, does not lie entirely with the individual teacher. The fault lies to a large extent with teacher-educating agencies, but it is likewise due to the unwillingness of teachers' organizations to establish professional requirements for membership.

By and large teachers' organizations admit amateur teachers who are willing to pay dues just as readily as they admit professional teachers. Kansas alone, among the state teachers' associations and all affiliates of the NEA, has taken steps to apply standards for membership which approach a professional level, and even in Kansas the levels established are too low. A professional organization should not be primarily concerned with increasing membership; it should be primarily concerned with selecting members who meet professional standards.

From the point of view of "apprenticeship," teaching has not yet matured, although it has accepted a token plan for apprenticeship by requiring, in most states, that a prospective teacher receive credit in "practice teaching," "cadet teaching," or "supervised practice." But even this step is a legal one. It has not been taken by the teachers' organizations. If teachers' organizations are to become professional organizations and if they are to make teaching a profession rather than merely a valuable vocation, they will require a teacher to experience a year or more of apprenticeship before the prospective member can be admitted to the organization. Although teachers favor tenure laws which provide "probationary periods," they refuse to require probationary periods as prerequisites to membership in their organizations. This is a needed step if teachers' organizations are to make teaching a profession.

Many teachers actually discourage promising and able young men and women from entering the teaching vocation. In all fairness, this is not the most common practice. If teaching is to be a real profession, teachers will be so proud of their functions that they will continuously encourage the best types of young men and women to elect teaching as an occupation. There is an old saying which goes, "Those who can, do; those who cannot, teach." If there is any truth in this statement, it is probably



because of the amateurs in the vocation of teaching who have made only meager commitments to the work of a teacher.

A profession is always concerned with extending the process of education of members beyond the academic life of preservice preparation. Thus a commitment to continuous in-service education is imperative if teaching is to become a profession. In spite of this, many teachers object vehemently to any effort on the part of boards of education or certifying agencies to stimulate or require "on the job training." Particularly is this true if the teacher acquired a master's degree. The only satisfactory attempts to encourage in-service education on the part of teachers have come from enlightened leadership in local units, from enactment of rules and regulations by boards of education, and from enactment of laws regarding certification. Teachers as organized groups have done little more than use legislatures to attack this problem. If teaching is to become a profession, teachers' organizations must establish programs of in-service education as an essential aspect of continued membership.

If teaching is a profession, each member of the teaching profession will do his best to refrain from bringing other members of the profession into disrepute. Organizations of teachers should have the courage and the willingness to eliminate members who have failed to live up to this responsibility.

If teaching is to be a profession, teachers are obligated to define their relationships to society. This, to a large extent, has been well done by the NEA. The AFT has done a good job, too, but not as thorough a job as the NEA. Many state teachers' groups have done well, and some local associations have, also. But in the main, such a poor job of public relations has been done that the people are quite unaware of the definition of relationships, much less of their meaning and significance.

Leadership is an obligation of a professional person. Many teachers shrink from leadership. Many school administrators are officeholders but not leaders. Considerably more emphasis must be placed upon the assumption of leadership roles by teachers if teaching is to be considered a profession.

#### SUMMARY OF NEEDED STEPS IF TEACHING IS TO BECOME A PROFESSION

1. Teachers' organizations must become selective in admitting members rather than continue their policies of "pay your dues and join."
2. Teachers' organizations should establish their own criteria for teacher education as it pertains to admission to membership. Only those teachers who have been graduated from approved programs should be admitted to membership.
3. Teachers' organizations should define the teacher's task; they should clearly indicate the responsibilities of teachers, showing where that responsibility ends.



4. Teachers' organizations should publish in clear, concise language what they stand for. They should let all the people know. They should not equivocate on basic issues.
5. Teachers' organizations should require teachers to serve probationary periods as teachers before being admitted to membership.
6. Teachers' organizations should establish criteria concerning (a) subject-matter preparation of teachers and (b) "professional education courses" for teachers, and should admit only those who meet these requirements.
7. Teachers' organizations should take steps to create scholarships and grants-in-aid to promising and able young men and women who elect teaching as a career.
8. Teachers' organizations should develop positive programs for recruitment of the most able young men and women for the profession.
9. Teachers' organizations should make continued growth in service a prerequisite to continued membership in the association. They should rethink such benefits as leaves of absence, tenure, and salary schedules in terms of promoting growth in service and should emphasize the obligation of teachers to grow in service as a prerequisite for such benefits.
10. Teachers' associations should prepare codes of ethics which can be used to govern conduct of members and which are such that violations can be readily discovered.
11. Teachers' organizations should have the courage and should be willing to dismiss teachers who are unfit for membership.
12. Teachers' organizations should encourage teacher participation in leadership activities.

The Boy Scouts of America have a code of ethics. No boy can count himself as a tenderfoot member of the organization until he has promised: "On my honor I will do my best to obey the scout law, to help other people at all times, and to keep myself physically strong, mentally awake, and morally straight."

Furthermore, as a young lad progresses in scouting from the rank of tenderfoot through second-class scout, first-class scout, star scout, life scout, and eagle scout, he is required over and over to reaffirm his scout oath and to demonstrate that he has lived up to the scout law. Even for those who continue to progress in scouting through programs of explorer scout, sea scout, rover scout, and leadership in scouting, there is the continuous requirement that the person involved reaffirms his commitments to the scout oath and law. Progress in scouting is developed around the goals established in the code of ethics. Many young lads have found it impossible to achieve the highest rank in scouting because they have been unable to convince their fellows and their leaders that they have lived up to the code. It is the basic code of a scout that makes scouting one of the most highly regarded organizations of boys and young men in the world.



In exactly the same fashion, the Girl Scouts of America have come to be recognized as one of the most worthwhile youth organizations in the nation.

There can be no doubt that many boys and girls who enroll in scouting fail to live up to or abide by their promises, but there is ample evidence to show that the great majority of young people who go through the program of scouting are different from those who have not. It is significant to note that employees, officials of the armed services, colleges, universities, and even school officials looking for teachers frequently ask, "Were you a scout?" Some teacher-educating institutions even require all people in training for entrance into the profession to study the program of scouting as a prerequisite to graduation.

The medical profession has for centuries recognized the Hippocratic oath, and since 1912 it has enlarged this recognition by requiring commitment to a modern, specific, and more inclusive code of ethics. The American Bar Association adopted a code of ethics in 1908 and enlarged and modernized the code in 1923.

Rotary International has adopted a code of ethics for its members. Every newly elected member is presented with a small booklet which includes the Rotary code:

As a Rotarian it is my purpose

To regard my business or profession as my opportunity to express myself in service to society as well as a means to material gain; to maintain the dignity and worthiness of my calling by the acceptance and promotion of high standards and the elimination of questionable practices.

To value success in my vocation as a worthy ambition when achieved as a result of service to society but to accept no profit or distinction which arises from unfair advantage, abuse of privilege, or betrayal of trust.

To recognize that any sound transaction must be governed by practices which bring satisfaction to all parties concerned, and to esteem it a privilege, in my profession or business, to serve beyond the strict measure of duty or obligation.<sup>2</sup>

Herbert J. Taylor,<sup>3</sup> president of the Club Aluminum Products Company of Chicago, and a prominent Rotarian, has translated the Rotary code of ethics pertaining to the operation of the Club Aluminum Company and has applied the four-way test to his own services as an industrial leader. He has, for example, asked four questions regarding business plans, policies, statements, and advertising:

<sup>2</sup> *Adventure in Service*, p. 35, Rotary International, Chicago, 1946.

<sup>3</sup> The Club Aluminum Products Company, Chicago, Ill., Herbert J. Taylor, president.

The author has known this gentleman for a good many years; he has worked with him on research projects which were vocational in nature and has been impressed with the point of view expressed by Mr. Taylor, chiefly because his whole operations plan is actually built upon the code expressed. Mr. Taylor was elected president of Rotary International in the summer of 1954.



1. Is it the truth?
2. Is it fair to all concerned?
3. Will it build good will and better friendship?
4. Will it be beneficial to all concerned?

Phi Delta Kappa has proposed that teachers take an oath similar in character to the Hippocratic oath, as follows:

I do solemnly swear that

I will be loyal to the profession of teaching and loyal and generous to its members.

I will lead my life and practice my art with understanding and justice. Into whatsoever child's life I shall enter, it shall be for the good of the child to the utmost of my power, holding myself far aloof from error, from corruption, from the exemplification of wrongdoing.

I will exercise my art solely for the welfare of children, and will aid no learning and administer no discipline for a socially unjust purpose, even if solicited, far less suggest it.

Whatsoever I shall see or hear of the lives of children or their parents or my colleagues which is not fitting to be spoken, I will keep inviolably secret.\*

When human beings are faced with the question: What should be done? they are faced with a moral issue which is a practical one. For some reason men have frequently divided judgmental procedure into two categories, namely, the moral and the practical. This division has done great damage to the process of determining a course of action. The notion that there is a complete separation or even a mild separation between the practical and the moral is fallacious; it encourages irresponsibility regarding the social consequences of action.

Democracy is founded upon the assumption that the people are sovereign and that they can plan their own actions in harmony with basic beliefs and commitments which they have acquired. It is, therefore, a fundamental tenet of democratic control that men begin with some form of normative orientation. The men who wrote our basic law began with the normative "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."<sup>5</sup>

The education of the young in elementary schools, secondary schools, and colleges has been oriented, unfortunately, around theoretical disciplines which have usually ignored the normative aspect of making practical judgments. Similarly, the education of teachers has not emphasized a discipline of practical judgment which focuses attention upon

\* Published in *Phi Delta Kappan*, January, 1947, in the second person, not in first person as it appears here.

<sup>5</sup> The Declaration of Independence.



the normative phase of judgmental method. Many teacher-educating agencies have been more concerned with preparing teachers to direct learning toward acquisition of facts and information than with preparing teachers who know how to cause children to come to grips with the real problems of their lives, present and future. Teachers have side-stepped many of the issues which need intelligent direction; the issues which involve people and their deepest values; the issues which center around commitments regarding goals of living, purposes of occupations, ideals of family living, and decisions regarding the ethical merits of a plan of action.

This criticism is not meant as a request to return to teaching of dogma because such teaching evades the real issue; the best way to achieve dogmatic value judgments is by dictation and by confining learning to some neutral area of subject matter primarily concerned with "facts and information." By such procedure the learner is left to flounder in the sea of facts or steer his way out by use of the dictated dogma. The American public schools, however, are committed to a program of separation of schools from dogma. By traditionally centralizing attention of learners on "facts, information, and skills" and at the same time denying the schools the right to teach dogma, we have left many people high and dry.

Most of our teachers are products of just such a scheme of things, so we find teachers lost and floundering with respect to beliefs and commitments which can be used by them in evaluating their own services as teachers. Decisions which are made independent of accepted policies or principles are socially blind unless by accident they happen to be in the interest of the public good.

If teachers are to become leaders in the art of assisting the young to make intelligent judgments of practice, it is essential that teachers themselves know how to reconstruct their own basic norms of conduct. Teachers make a sad mistake when they assume that some group of people with whom they have no direct contact can establish basic norms of conduct for them. Another important essential is a positive commitment to the norm by the individual. Still another important essential is a complete understanding, by the individual, of the implications of the norm for practice and a belief that commitment should be measured in terms of outcomes rather than in terms of verbalism.

Thus if a teacher states that he believes the schools should be operated primarily for the children but places his own personal welfare ahead of the needs of children, there is no real commitment, there is only verbalization.

Adoption of codes of ethics by a group of teachers in a school can be as meaningless as the isolated exclamations of a parrot unless the teachers themselves have explored the meaning of the separate statements of the



code and have subsequently pledged themselves to abide by it. The test of the commitment lies not in the vote to adopt but in the consequences of the several acts of the teachers involved.

There are teachers in the public schools who, while earning their own living in such schools, are actually opposed to free public education as an institution of democratic living. There are teachers in the public schools who speak glibly of their belief in the rightness of making the public schools open to all children regardless of race, color, creed, economic status, or intellectual endowments, who deliberately attempt to build a school program for those who have special talents of an intellectual nature. It is not uncommon to hear public school teachers exclaim, "He shouldn't be in school, anyway."

Thus a code of ethics is valueless unless it has been thoroughly discussed and understood by those working by it, unless those who adopt it are willing to square their actions by it, and unless individuals are willing to be excluded from the group if their acts are contrary to the code.

In 1949 eighty-six advisory committee members of NEA code committee listed sixty problems which, in their opinion, were so important as to indicate a need for developing a functional code of ethics for teachers. Some of the problems are listed here.<sup>6</sup>

1. Teachers are not loyal to the profession.
2. Teachers fail to support associates.
3. Teachers refuse to participate in community activities.
4. Teachers leave professional meetings for social reasons even though being paid while attending.
5. Teachers refuse to grow in service.
6. Teachers blame other teachers for pupil failures.
7. Teachers make disparaging remarks about other teachers.
8. Teachers refuse to attend professional meetings unless compelled to do so.
9. Teachers jump contracts.
10. Teachers refuse to read professional journals.
11. Teachers refuse to join professional organizations.
12. Teachers misuse sick leave.
13. Teachers "play ball" with pressure groups.
14. Teachers refuse to teach "slow learners."
15. Teachers force beginners to take the worst assignments and then criticize them when they have trouble.
16. Teachers by-pass the principal or superintendent.
17. Teachers discourage children from entering the profession.
18. Teachers refuse to work with PTA groups.
19. Teachers gossip about each other.

<sup>6</sup> *Report of the Committee on Professional Ethics*, pp. 6-7, NEA, Washington, 1950.



20. Teachers "play up" to board members.
21. Teachers use political influence to get jobs.
22. Teachers spy on each other.
23. Teachers pledge contributions and do not pay.

Recently the author requested sixty-four teachers enrolled in his classes in supervision to list the five most flagrant violations of teacher ethics which they could remember. These were tabulated in the order of observed occurrence. The top ten types of violations are listed below:

1. Teachers work harder for such benefits as tenure, higher salaries, and sick leave than for improvement of themselves as teachers.
2. Teachers are more concerned with earning master's degrees to get on a higher salary schedule than to become better teachers.
3. Teachers join professional organizations to get something in the form of personal benefits of a material nature.
4. Teachers gossip about other teachers and talk about the inadequacies of other teachers.
5. Teachers talk against the administration when in small groups but try to curry favor when on their own.
6. Some teachers really do not believe in public education; they prefer private education, or education sponsored by private or religious agencies.
7. Teachers refuse to give active support to teachers' organizations.
8. Teachers are more concerned with teaching subjects than with teaching children.
9. Teachers are not loyal to the profession; they discourage others from entering it.
10. Teachers refuse to work together in determining school policy—they say policy making is the job of the superintendent.

These are serious indictments of teachers, but it is hoped that the small sample is an unfair one. The sixth indictment is a most serious one if it is true. Are there fifth columnists teaching in the public schools? Are there those employed by the public schools of the nation who secretly wish that the whole system itself could be abolished? If there are, then teachers should take cognizance of that fact and do what they can to eliminate such people from the profession. It is just as important to eliminate from the profession of teaching in the public schools those who are secretly opposed to free public education as it is to eliminate communists from the government. Today the integrity and validity of the free public schools are being challenged. It would be tragic if the challenge succeeded. Can public school teachers ignore the possibility that they have within their own ranks those who would sabotage the whole program of public education?

The ethics committee of the NEA recommended the adoption of a code of ethics for that organization and suggested that it be adopted by



the state associations and the local units affiliated with the NEA. The code adopted is as follows:<sup>7</sup>

Believing: that true democracy can best be achieved by a process of free public education made available to all the children of all the people;

That the teachers in the United States have a large and inescapable responsibility in fashioning the ideals of children and youth;

That such responsibility requires the services of men and women of high ideals, broad education, and profound human understanding; and in order that the aims of democratic education may be realized more fully, that the welfare of the teaching profession may be promoted; and

That teachers may observe proper standards of conduct in their professional relations; the National Education Association of the United States proposes this Code of Ethics for its members.

The term "teacher" as used in this code shall include all persons directly engaged in educational work, whether in teaching, an administrative or a supervisory capacity.

1. It is the duty of the teacher to be just, courteous, and professional in all his relations with pupils. He should consider their individual differences, needs, interests, temperaments, aptitudes, and environments.
2. He should refrain from tutoring pupils of his classes for pay, and referring such pupils to any member of his immediate family for tutoring.
3. The professional relations of a teacher with his pupils demand the same scrupulous care that is required in the confidential relations of one teacher with another. A teacher, therefore, should not disclose any information obtained confidentially from his pupils, unless it is for the best interest of the child and the public.
4. A teacher should seek to establish friendly and intelligent cooperation between home and school, ever keeping in mind the dignity of his profession and the welfare of the pupils. He should do or say nothing that would undermine the confidence and respect of his pupils for their parents. He should inform the pupils and parents regarding the importance of purposes, accomplishments, and needs of the schools.
5. It is the obligation of every teacher to inculcate in his pupils an appreciation of the principles of democracy. He should direct full and free discussion of appropriate controversial issues with the expectation that comparisons, contrasts, and interpretations will lead to an understanding, appreciation, acceptance, and practice of the principles of democracy. A teacher should refrain from using his classroom privileges and prestige to promote partisan politics, sectarian religious views, or selfish propaganda of any kind.
6. A teacher should recognize and perform all the duties of citizenship. He should subordinate his personal desires to the best interests of the public good. He should be loyal to the school system, the state, and the nation, but he should exercise his right to give constructive criticism.
7. A teacher's life should show that education makes people better citizens

<sup>7</sup> "The Teacher and Professional Organizations," *Report of the Committee on Professional Ethics*, Appendix D, pp. 115-117, NEA, Washington, 1951.



- and better neighbors. His personal conduct should not needlessly offend the accepted pattern of behavior of the community in which he serves.
8. Each member of the teaching profession should dignify his calling on all occasions and should uphold the importance of his services to society. On the other hand, he should not indulge in personal exploitation.
  9. A teacher should encourage able and sincere individuals to enter the teaching profession and discourage those who plan to use this profession merely as a stepping-stone to some other vocation.
  10. It is the duty of the teacher to maintain his own efficiency by study, by travel, and by other means which keep him abreast of the trends in education and the world in which he lives.
  11. Every teacher should have membership in his local, state, and national professional organizations, and should participate actively and unselfishly in them. Professional growth and personality development are the natural product of such professional activity. Teachers should avoid the promotion of organizational rivalry and divisive competition which weaken the cause of education.
  12. While not limiting their services by reason of small salary, teachers should insist upon a salary scale commensurate with the social demands laid upon them by society. They should not knowingly underbid a rival or agree to accept a salary lower than that provided by a recognized schedule. They should not apply for positions for the sole purpose of forcing an increase in salary in their present position; correspondingly, school officials should not refuse to give deserved salary increases to efficient employees until offers from other school authorities have forced them to do so.
  13. A teacher should not apply for a specific position currently held by another teacher. Unless the rules of the school system otherwise prescribe, he shall file his application with the chief executive officer.
  14. Since qualification should be the sole determining factor in appointment and promotion, the use of pressure on school officials to secure a position or to obtain other favors is unethical.
  15. Testimonials regarding teachers should be truthful and confidential, and should be treated as confidential information by the school authorities receiving them.
  16. A contract, once signed, should be faithfully adhered to until it is dissolved by mutual consent. Ample notification should be given by both school officials and teachers in case a change in position is to be made.
  17. Democratic procedures should be practiced by members of the teaching profession. Cooperation should be predicated upon the recognition of the worth and dignity of individual personality. All teachers should observe the professional courtesy of transacting official business with the properly designated authority.
  18. School officials should encourage and nurture the professional growth of all teachers by promotion or by other appropriate methods of recognition. School officials who fail to recommend a worthy teacher for a better position outside their school system because they do not desire to lose his services are acting unethically.
  19. A teacher should avoid unfavorable criticism of other teachers except that



formally presented to a school official for the welfare of the school. It is unethical to fail to report to the duly constituted authority any matters which are detrimental to the welfare of the school.

20. Except when called upon for counsel or other assistance, a teacher should not interfere in any matter between another teacher and a pupil.
21. A teacher should not act as an agent, or accept a commission, royalty, or other compensation for endorsing books or other school materials in the selection or purchase of which he can exert influence or concerning which he can exercise the right of decision, nor should he accept a commission or other compensation for helping another to secure a position.<sup>8</sup>

The NEA established a standing committee on professional ethics consisting of members appointed by the president. This committee has the following assignment:

It will be the duty of the Committee to study and to take appropriate action on such cases of violation of this code as may be referred to it. The Committee shall be responsible also for publicizing the Code, promoting its use in institutions for the preparation of teachers, and recommending needed modifications.

If, when a case is reported, it is found to come from a state which has an Ethics Committee, such cases shall immediately be referred to said state committee for investigation and action. In the case of violation reported from a state which has neither a Code or an Ethics Committee, or from a state which has a Code but no Ethics Committee, the N.E.A. Ethics Committee shall take such action as seems wise and reasonable, reporting to the state school officers of the community recommending expulsion of any N.E.A. members for flagrant violations.<sup>9</sup>

The NEA has made a powerful contribution to the task of professionalizing the vocation of teaching. Its development of a code of ethics is an exceedingly hopeful indication that the organized teachers of the schools are seriously concerned with moving toward professional status. Teachers still have a long way to go, but the NEA has made many starts in the right direction, and among these is its development of a code of ethics.

Several important errors were made by the NEA, however. One of the errors was to assume that a relatively small group of officials of the organization could draft a code of ethics which would be accepted by the rank and file of teachers. The process was not sufficiently organic in nature; it did not arise from the local units and mushroom to the top. Instead, it was started at the top and was expected to filter to the individual teacher in his community. This filtering has not occurred. Many teachers do not know much of anything about the NEA Code of Ethics. In a class of twenty-nine people, all teachers seeking the master's degree in education, and all coming from local units affiliated with the NEA,

<sup>8</sup> This code is available as NEA Personal Growth Leaflet 135, Washington.

<sup>9</sup> "The Teacher and Professional Organizations," *op. cit.*, p. 117.



only one person had read the Code of Ethics of the organization to which they belonged.<sup>10</sup> This is far too small a sample to justify any conclusions, but it does indicate that something is very wrong with the notion that a code of ethics devised at the top will filter down.

The NEA is taking steps to see that all members receive copies of the code, that all local units study the code, and that each state association undertakes a program of indoctrinating teachers with the code. Doubtless this step has been taken by the NEA as a result of awareness at the top that the bottom has as yet made few commitments.

It is distressing indeed that the teachers themselves show very little appreciation of the need for restricting membership in organizations of teachers. Equally disturbing is the fact that many administrative officials of teachers' colleges and schools of education as well as teachers in such institutions likewise show little concern for the need of restricting membership in teachers' organizations. Whether we like it or not, the vocation of teaching is cluttered with incompetents, a fact which is certainly felt in low wages, loss of attractive power for able young men and women, and efforts to reduce expenditures for public education. Many of the so-called "attacks" on public education have been attributed to subversive groups, and many loyal citizens have been hurt to the quick by teachers or teacher groups who have accused such persons of being tools for subversive groups. Actually, many of the criticisms of public education stem from honest convictions of loyal citizens who feel that the vocation of teaching is honeycombed with incompetent teachers. Teachers should be sure of their facts before they crucify citizens on the cross of being members of "subversive groups opposed to public education."

Certainly there are agencies and groups at work in America for the sole purpose of eliminating public education. These groups should be opposed vigorously by all believers in democracy. But teachers have no right to accuse loyal citizens of subversion merely because they question the competency of teachers or the nature of the program of the schools.

Teachers would make a far more significant contribution to the problem of securing more adequate support for public education if they would take positive steps to eliminate from their own ranks those who are unfit to teach. Teachers' organizations have a distinct obligation to limit membership to those who meet professional standards which have been established by the profession itself.

Boards of education and state legislatures are often obsessed with the single objective of keeping taxes on the lowest possible level. Rather than hold to standards for the certification of teachers, which necessitates higher salaries and more expenditures for schools to train teachers, they

<sup>10</sup> A group of teachers in Connecticut.



have resorted to "emergency" certificates by means of which many rank amateurs have been admitted to the teaching group. And to make matters even worse, teachers' organizations throughout the country have urged and cajoled these amateurs to become members of the several associations, accepting their dues with great pleasure and pride, and bragging about the great increases in enrollment of teachers in the organizations.

There are many problems connected with making a profession out of the occupation of teaching, and no one person can even foresee all these problems, let alone offer possible solutions for them. But teachers as a group can locate and solve these problems if they will go to work on this major issue. The time has come for teachers to assume the responsibilities which entitle them to ask for rights. Teachers are inadequately paid; teachers need retirement laws; teachers ought to have tenure; teachers should be granted leaves of absence to recover health, to grow professionally, and to meet emergencies; but if teachers expect to acquire these rights, they must increase the respect of the public for the vocation of teaching by making it a profession, they must take steps to encourage and guarantee more adequate services, they must discipline themselves by establishing higher standards for membership in the profession, they must educate those who employ members of the profession, and they must devise ways for ridding the profession of incompetent members thereof.

Any teacher who is a member of the profession of public school teachers in the United States of America should

1. Be a loyal citizen of the United States of America.
2. Be committed to the belief that the best interests of the United States of America demand that our system of free, public, tax-supported education shall be maintained and improved.
3. Put the welfare of children as the first and highest obligation of the teacher.
4. Engage in a continuous process of professional growth and development as long as he is engaged in teaching.
5. Seek in every way possible to be healthy, vigorous, physically strong, and mentally well.
6. Become increasingly competent in the art of participation in group-thinking situations and in contributing to leadership in such situations.
7. Become increasingly competent in studying the community and in using data thus discovered for improving the educational program.
8. Become increasingly competent in observing children and in organizing such observations for the purpose of improving the teaching-learning situation.
9. Become increasingly competent in participating with children, fellow citizens, and people of the community in the development of principles;



- in the formulation of policies; and in the making of decisions which affect the teaching-learning situation, the school's program, and administration of the school.
10. Become increasingly competent in the art of evaluating educational programs, outcomes of teaching, outcomes of learning, and achievement of children.
  11. Become increasingly competent in interpreting the educational program to the people of the community.
  12. Observe the following general rules of conduct:
    - a. Refrain from tutoring pupils of his classes for pay and from referring such pupils to any member of his family.
    - b. Refrain from disclosing any information obtained confidentially from pupils in the school unless it can be very clearly shown that such disclosure is essential to protecting the life or limb of others.
    - c. Refrain from applying for a position unless a vacancy exists or is about to occur.
    - d. Refrain from using his position or prestige to promote partisan politics, sectarian religious views, or propaganda of any kind.
    - e. Perform all the duties of citizenship.
    - f. Refrain from attempting to measure his own services in terms of the number of hours devoted to teaching.
    - g. Refrain from underbidding a rival and from agreeing to accept a salary lower than that provided in the salary schedule.
    - h. Refrain from applying for positions solely for the purpose of forcing local school authorities to increase salaries.
    - i. Refrain from utilizing pressures of friends, political groups, or others in seeking appointment or promotion.
    - j. Consider all information regarding a teacher which has been acquired in confidence as strictly confidential, to be revealed to no one except as provided in receiving such information.
    - k. Consider all contracts binding unless, by mutual agreement between all parties concerned, the terms of the contract are changed, modified, or abrogated.
    - l. Refrain from unfavorable criticism of other teachers except when such criticism is presented to the school officially for the welfare of the schools, in which case it should be in writing, and signed.
    - m. Report to duly constituted authorities any gross violation of code of ethics, making such reports in writing, and signing them.
    - n. Scrupulously refrain from accepting commission, royalty, services, or gifts from any source whatsoever for influence rendered in the selection of books, materials of instruction, supplies, equipment, or services used in or for the schools.
    - o. Never interfere in any matter between another teacher and a pupil unless life or limb of either party is at stake.
  13. Accept membership in, and give financial and personal support to, the professional organizations of teachers, national, state, and local.
  14. Seek to improve the salaries of professional teachers so that the financial



rewards will be such as to attract and hold the most able young men and women in America.

15. Encourage able and sincere young men and women to become teachers.
16. Engage in activities of the professional organizations in such a manner as to encourage the professional organizations to
  - a. Set standards for membership.
  - b. Expel teachers who fail to live up to this code.
  - c. Continuously evaluate the professional character of the organization.

The highly significant task of professionalizing teaching can be and will be solved by teachers. It is not likely to be solved by school administration alone, by officials of teachers' organizations alone, or by edicts of legislative assemblies. It can and will be solved when the leaders in school systems set the stage for active, wide, free participation by teachers in the development of principles, policies, and plans of action for the operation of the schools.

One of the most primitive methods for developing codes of ethics consists of the strong compelling the underlings to adopt and accept a code issued by edict. The weaker person's judgment plays no part in developing the code or in developing plans for its application to behavior. But such coerced action is never stable, and over any span of time, except a very short one, it is totally inefficient. The compelled are never bound to a code of ethics by any bonds except fear of the compeller. The characters and the personalities of the compelled do not grow, abilities on the part of the compelled to inquire are stunted if not completely blocked, and a common course of action based upon congenial acceptance of basic principles does not result. This pattern of developing a code of ethics, regardless of any immediate advantages it may have, is, in the long run, most wasteful of human resources and immoral. It stunts growth of compelled and compeller alike.

Another method for developing codes of ethics arises out of conflicts of purpose where the people involved are divided into two or more groups which hold to differing basic values. In such cases, power of the two or more groups may be equal or unequal. If they are unequal, the previously described primitive method of arriving at agreement with respect to the code is usually the result. If they are equal in power, the method for developing the code of ethics becomes one of compromise. Compromise as a method develops when there are differences in purpose but equality of power. When compromise occurs, and it does in many situations where teachers are endeavoring to agree upon a code of ethics, those involved should recognize that compromise as a method for developing a code of ethics offers no abiding solution; it is little more than a temporary truce awaiting more intelligent methods.

A third method for developing a code of ethics is that of "selling the



code" to a group of people. This is the method usually used by state-wide organizations of teachers and by national associations of teachers. Certain people, more gifted than others in their ability to speak, write, or influence people through a wide variety of means of communication, offer codes of ethics to the teachers and offer them as the basic solution to their professional status problems. Teachers are "persuaded"; they are "sold"; they are influenced to accept. Often, in this process, important facts and relevant materials may be withheld or slightly twisted in their interpretation, sometimes consequences of adoption are ignored. Often, translation of the code of ethics into plans of action is never mentioned. This procedure is alarmingly successful, alarming because it is one of exploitation; it is wasteful of human resources and basically immoral. Characters of people should be respected, not manipulated; beliefs of people should be fused, not maneuvered. Commitments of teachers to a code of ethics which does not incorporate the intelligence and insight of all teachers involved is not as sound a commitment as it could be.

A fourth method of developing a code of ethics is a function of the quality of leadership in the school system. Only when leadership is recognized as separate and distinct from specific, designated authority is this method likely to be fruitful in the democratic sense. Leadership, even strong leadership, is not incompatible with our ideals of democratic values; it is not opposed to democratic social control whenever the group is immature, when the group is inexperienced, when the group is faced with an emergency. The most promising type of leadership in a democratic society is that type which seeks continuously, increasingly, and progressively to transfer leadership from dependence upon one person to interdependence of the members. It is this characteristic which distinguishes true leadership from exploitation.

If those in charge of the affairs of the school system have resolved to utilize the kind of leadership described in the preceding paragraph, it becomes much easier to adopt the best method for adopting a code of ethics. Such a method for adopting a code of ethics involves, first, an attempt to clarify all the points of difference between individuals; this involves recognition of differences, not argumentation concerning their relative rightness or wrongness. Such procedure involves uncoerced discussion and deliberation. The second step is that of locating the points of agreement rather than the points of conflict and by study, deliberation, and discussion arriving at meanings and understandings of these common agreements. Out of this deliberation are bound to come basic elements of common outlook, of common purpose, of common principles, of common beliefs, of common policies, and perhaps common programs for action. The next step is to examine the differences in the order of their least difficulty, attacking the easiest conflict first, thus leaving the hardest



one always last. Many groups ignore this step; they begin with the most controversial matter and get nowhere, increasing emotional blocks as they work.

As each point of conflict is resolved by uncoerced discussion and deliberation, the group should move to the next point of conflict. As it proceeds to examine the meanings, insights, and basic assumptions of all those who are parties to the conflict, agreements usually emerge. As these agreements emerge, the common attack upon the general problem of teacher ethics gradually finds a solution which is agreeable to the group. The result is consensus. This procedure is deliberative and thoughtful; it results in full utilization of human resources; it leads to development of plans of action which are relevant to common beliefs and understandings; its outcomes are sensitive to common human values which are satisfying to the participants. This method results in enduring codes of ethics which are likely to function as basic controls of action; it is democratic; it is conducive to mental health; it leads to mutuality; it is creative.

### SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. What obstacles to professionalization of teaching have been omitted in this chapter?
2. Would limiting membership in the NEA to those holding bachelor's degrees be an adequate limitation?
3. What arguments can be given for free and open membership to state teachers' associations?
4. Should teachers' associations leave standards to state certifying agencies?
5. Would the requirement that a person hold a teaching certificate be an adequate standard for membership in the NEA?
6. Would colleges of education oppose establishing standards for teacher education adopted by the NEA?
7. How would young beginning teachers react to a requirement of two years of probationary work as a teacher before being eligible for membership in the NEA?
8. Teachers' unions are often called "unprofessional." Do you agree with this? Why?
9. Can you tell the difference between a teacher who is an NEA member and one who is not by observing the classroom work of the two? How?

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## CHAPTER 15 *Salaries and Salary Schedules*

The plans of action for determining salaries of teachers in the public schools have far-reaching influence. They are of major importance in school finance because a large proportion of school revenue is used to pay salaries. They are of paramount importance because they influence the quality of teaching, the quality of the personnel within a school system, and the personnel recruited for teaching. They are important because they play a most significant role in the development of morale and wholesome working relationships of the entire staff.

Salary schedules have been developed to meet one problem of personnel administration in the schools. Like any invention, they serve their purposes for a time and then become obsolete because the social and economic situation changes. Today's salary schedules, as found in most schools, represent past thinking, but no limit is set on what may be developed for tomorrow. There can be no doubt that the existing pattern of salary scheduling has improved salaries for teachers; neither can there be any doubt that existing patterns of salary scheduling are far better for all concerned than were the hit-and-miss policies used prior to the development of such schedules.

Most of the research in the field of salary scheduling has been done by the NEA,<sup>1</sup> and this agency asserts that "salary schedules may be expected to change and improve in the light of increasing knowledge and understanding by teachers of their own obligations and by the profession of what constitutes acceptable professional preparation and standards."<sup>2</sup>

The distinguishing characteristic of nearly all salary schedules in the public schools is that they are based upon only two factors, namely, (1) levels of professional preparation, and (2) years of experience. Salary

<sup>1</sup> W. S. Monroe (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 1073, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1950.

<sup>2</sup> NEA Research Bulletin 25, No. 3, p. 76, October, 1947.



schedules usually reveal the effects of compromise by including special features such as differences in salary due to sex, area of teaching, dependents, special assignments, etc., but the basic characteristics of nearly all schedules now in use are those mentioned above.

For example, in a study of 452 single salary schedules reported by the NEA<sup>3</sup> with few exceptions there were four classes of teachers.

Class A: Teachers without degrees.

Class B: Teachers with bachelor's degrees.

Class C: Teachers with master's degrees.

Class D: Teachers with master's degrees and one year of additional graduate work.

Endless variations of this general scheme were found. Titles of classes sometimes referred to years of college work, semester hours, quarter hours, or weeks of preparation. In some cases only two classes existed; in others there were seven. There were intermediate classes for fractions of a year's preparation. The master's degree or equivalent was the highest level of preparation recognized by about 80 per cent of the schedules. Only 6 per cent gave recognition for the doctor's degree. A few schedules recognized each separate semester hour of credit by inclusion of such statements as: "For each hour of approved credit beyond the basic training requirement, add eight dollars per credit to a maximum of ninety additional semester hours."

Having determined in which class a teacher finds himself, most salary schedules then proceed to list actual salary figures for teachers in each class according to the number of years of service a teacher has had. A typical example of a salary schedule thus developed is as shown in the table on page 262.

This type of salary schedule is a crude instrument which schools have used largely because of habit, certainly not because it is effective for the purposes which were assumed.

One of the chief reasons for including the various classes in the typical salary schedule has been to encourage teacher growth in service. This assumption has been based largely upon evidence found in studies which tend to show that salary increments correlate highly with attendance at summer schools and earning advanced degrees.<sup>4</sup>

Until 1943 practically no research had been undertaken to discover the relationship between salary increments and growth of teachers in service. The studies all assumed that attendance at summer schools and earning advanced degrees was *prima facie* evidence of growth on the

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 81.

<sup>4</sup> L. L. Morris, *The Single Salary Schedule*, Teachers College Contribution to Education 413, pp. 78-79, Columbia University, New York, 1930.



## Basic Salary Schedule, Podunk Schools, 19\_\_\_\_

(Hypothetical figures for illustrative purposes)

Salary step	Class A	Class B	Class C	Class D
1		\$2,850	\$3,000	\$3,150
2		3,000	3,150	3,300
3		3,150	3,300	3,450
4		3,300	3,450	3,600
5		3,450	3,600	3,750
6	\$3,450	3,600	3,750	3,900
7	3,600	3,750	3,900	4,050
8	3,750	3,900	4,050	4,200
9	3,900	4,050	4,200	4,350
10	4,050	4,200	4,350	4,500
11	4,200	4,350	4,500	4,650
12	4,350	4,500	4,650	4,800
13	4,500	4,650	4,800	4,950
14	4,650	4,800	4,950	5,100
15	4,800	4,950	5,100	5,250
16		5,100	5,250	5,400
17			5,400	5,550
18				5,700

part of teachers. Furthermore, as late as 1943 this was found to be a common assumption of teachers and administrators.<sup>5</sup>

Research done by a subcommittee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools revealed that

1. While 64 per cent of the schools felt that salary increments caused teachers to attend summer schools and to earn advanced degrees, these same schools doubted the value of giving salary increments if the results were measured in terms of teacher growth.
2. 29 per cent were positive that salary increments as provided in their salary schedules did not promote growth in service.
3. 14.9 per cent thought existing salary schedules were of doubtful value in producing growth of teachers in service.
4. 11.2 per cent of the schools thought existing salary schedules did result in growth of teachers in service.
5. 6.7 per cent of the schools believed that salary schedules improved morale but had little effect on growth in service.<sup>6</sup>

In this same study the great majority of teachers and administrators expressed the opinion that existing salary schedules were based upon a

<sup>5</sup> C. A. Weber, *Techniques Employed in a Selected Group of Secondary Schools of the North Central Association for Educating Teachers in Service*, Doctoral Dissertation, p. 210, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., 1943.

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 203-204.



psychological error because the real motivating forces were greater income, improved status, and increased opportunity to secure a more lucrative position rather than the desire to solve problems within the school system.<sup>7</sup> Some typical observations in this study are significant.

1. Salary increments should be based upon study of school problems, not upon advanced degrees earned.
2. If salary schedules were based upon study of school problems and teachers attended summer schools to better enable them to study these specific problems, growth would be more likely to occur.
3. It is easy to administer, even though we all doubt its value.
4. Teachers are more interested in the increase than in growth; motivation is wrong.

When pressed to analyze the reasons why salary schedules were not effective in promoting growth in service, the participating schools assigned the following (listed in order of frequency of mention):

1. Promotes "degreitis"—teachers do graduate work in order to get in next salary bracket, and are not primarily concerned with improving their own teaching ability.
2. Summer-session work is done in order to get increase, not to grow.
3. Teachers seek better positions in other schools when they get advanced degrees.
4. Salary schedules put no premium on studying our own problems in our schools.
5. Once a teacher gets a master's degree, there is little further stimulus to work.
6. Present plans encourage teachers to become more informed in their teaching fields but less expert in solving our own school problems.
7. Present plans encourage teachers to substitute credit hours for study of problems which arise within the school in which they are teaching.
8. Current practice creates classes which ride high on advanced degrees regardless of whether or not the degree has any significance in terms of educational understanding.<sup>8</sup>

The most promising techniques discovered in the North Central Association study with respect to salary scheduling were as follows:

1. Granting salary increases for study of specific problems arising out of cooperative planning and study of the teaching staff in a school whether or not such study takes the teacher to summer sessions, extension classes, etc.
2. Giving salary increases for participation in experimentation within the school which, in the judgment of teachers, board members, and administrators, has value to the school's educational program.

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 205.

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 207.



3. Giving salary increases for active study in the area of curriculum development.
4. Giving salary increases for writing and publishing articles for publication in recognized educational journals.
5. Giving salary increments for writing and publishing books.
6. Giving salary increments for development of new techniques in teaching which can be evaluated by the staff.
7. Participation in workshops where teachers cooperatively study common problems which have arisen within their schools.<sup>9</sup>

There is no good reason why the salary schedule should not reward teachers for growth in service rather than for merely earning graduate credits or graduate degrees. The evidence does not support the assumption that existing schedules do so.

There are few people who would assert that mere length of service in a school system is a guarantee that a teacher is a good teacher. Most people who have given thought to the problem of teaching, including teachers as well as administrators and college professors, realize that the first year of teaching experience is a crucial year and that the first three years of teaching experience are likely to be of far more value to a teacher than are any succeeding three years.

In a study of twenty selected schools whose program for development and growth of teachers was found to be superior and of twenty schools whose program for development and growth of teachers was found to be very poor, it was found that when the years of service of the 279 teachers in the first group of schools and the years of service of the 213 teachers in the second group of schools were compared, the years of experience of teachers was a negligible factor.<sup>10</sup>

It is the nature and quality of the experience which is really significant, not the length of service, and every self-respecting superintendent knows this to be true, every interested parent knows it to be true. It is an observation common to all; it is common sense.

Yet in spite of the evidence that mere institutional credit and mere length of experience are invalid criteria for judging the worth of a teacher, most of our existing salary schedules are based, almost exclusively, on the assumption that in determining salaries only two factors are important, namely, institutional credit and years of experience.

A board of education's chief responsibility is to the children of the community it serves. The board should consider all its actions in the light of their effect upon the children. Schools exist for the sake of the children who attend them. Consideration of the welfare of teachers, the board of education, and the community are secondary to consideration

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>10</sup> C. A. Weber, "Reactions of Teachers to In-service Education in Their Schools," *School Review*, 51:234-241 (April, 1943).



of the welfare of children. Thus the board of education has a responsibility to employ, retain, and reward teachers whose work is such as to serve the needs of the children adequately and effectively.

A board of education has a responsibility to the taxpayers because the taxpayers have a right to expect their money to be spent wisely and with due regard to two major factors, namely, the welfare of the children of the community and the ability of the school district to finance the schools.

To achieve these ends, a board of education has the right to expect that teachers will

1. Be well prepared in their preservice training.
2. Grow in service.
3. Be physically and emotionally fit to teach.
4. Eliminate absenteeism except for illness, accident, disease, or family emergencies.
5. Be competent to perform the assignments given them.
6. Keep abreast of new developments in the theory and practice of teaching.
7. Pool their knowledge and understanding of educational problems.
8. Keep abreast of new developments in their particular fields of subject matter.

But rights always imply responsibilities. What are some of the responsibilities which boards of education have to teachers? Their rights have been discussed, but one cannot stop with such discussion because boards morally do not have such rights unless they assume responsibilities which accompany them.

A board of education has an obligation to pay salaries to teachers which will enable the district to employ and retain teachers who live up to the expectations of the board. No board has a right to expect the finest type of teacher in its school system if it pays wages comparable to those being paid charwomen in the community. If a board of education has attractive salaries for beginning teachers but a poor salary plan for other teachers, it may be able to employ promising young teachers, but it cannot keep them. There must be a salary plan which will both attract teachers of great promise and keep teachers who live up to the expectations of the board.

Furthermore, a board of education has an obligation to pay salaries which will foster and encourage teachers to grow in service. To expect a teacher to subscribe to magazines in his field, to purchase books, to study, to pay tuition fees for college credit, to travel, to attend professional meetings, to participate in research, when the salary paid such teacher is quite inadequate to meet the basic needs of food, clothing, shelter, old age, membership in professional organizations, illness, insurance, reasonable recreation, and taxes is certainly unrealistic.



A board of education is obligated to provide facilities which will enable teachers to become increasingly competent. Chief among these is an adequate and growing professional library. The writer has visited too large a number of so-called "good" school systems where such important professional journals as the *Journal of Educational Research*, *The Elementary School Journal*, *Educational Administration and Supervision*, *Educational Leadership*, *The School Review*, *Educational Method*, and many others were totally absent and in many cases unheard of by members of the staff, including school administrators.

If current periodicals and journals are missing, in many cases, current research studies are almost unknown. The board of education has an obligation to supply the professional staff with funds necessary to build and maintain a library of periodicals, research studies, monographs, books, mimeographed materials, and pamphlets to enable the teachers to really go to work on basic problems in their fields. But this is not enough. There must be a place in the school system where these materials can be stored and used, and the board has an obligation to provide such facilities.

The board of education has an obligation, also, to see that arrangements are such as to be conducive to the health of teachers. No board can honestly expect teachers to be healthy if they are forced to work in quarters which are not likely to be healthy. Neither can a board expect teachers to be healthy if arrangements are such that teachers are worried and frustrated.

### *Basic Rights and Obligations of Teachers*

The teacher has a right to a salary which will enable him to be mentally and physically vigorous; to a salary which will enable him to provide adequately the essential elements of food, clothing, and shelter commensurate with the general living standards of the community in which he works; to a salary which is large enough to enable him to purchase life insurance, provide for retirement, pay local, state, and Federal taxes; to a salary sufficient to enable him to pay the expenses essential to summer-school attendance, taking extension courses, and otherwise earning credit in colleges and universities as part of a program of self-improvement; to a salary adequate to belong to professional organizations and to purchase books and magazines; to a salary sufficient to enable him to provide for emergencies such as long-extended illness, accident, surgical service, dental care, eye care, and other health services essential to his well-being; to a salary adequate to enable him to contribute to worthwhile community activities; to a salary sufficient to enable him to engage in recreational activities essential to his mental and physical health; and to a salary sufficient to enable him to save for



future emergencies without seriously curtailing essential current expenditures.

In addition, if he were to think like the businessmen in most communities, the teacher should be entitled to interest on his investment in education.

While it is impossible to illustrate the above rights for every community, it might be helpful to see what a minimum salary should be in one type of community. In a small city of 5,000 people in the Middle West, we might find the situation somewhat as follows:

Cost of food per year for a teacher figured at \$2.50 per day for 365 days...	\$912
Cost of clothing for one year.....	250
Cost of room at \$10 per week.....	520
Life insurance (\$5,000 ordinary life).....	70
Retirement (many teachers' pensions are not adequate, so the figure used here is for purchase of retirement annuity beginning at age twenty-five with retirement at age sixty as sold by the Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association and for a retirement of \$150 per month at age sixty).....	480
Local and state taxes (variable).....	20
Federal income tax (single person, assumed salary \$2,500).....	422
Summer school once every five years for tuition, books only (prorated).....	20
Extension courses, one two-hour course every three years (prorated).....	10
Purchase of books and subscriptions to professional journals.....	25
Dues to state teachers' association, NEA, two other professional organizations, and his own local teachers' club.....	20
Contribution to community agencies such as Red Cross, church, boy scouts, Chamber of Commerce, etc. (2 per cent of \$2,500).....	50
For health and accident insurance, Blue Cross, and other similar agencies as a hedge against illness, accident, and emergencies.....	40
Dental and ocular physicians and glasses, etc.....	30
Recreation (4 per cent of \$2,500).....	100
Personal appearance, such as hair treatment, haircuts, permanents, cosmetics, etc.....	60
Total.....	\$3,029

It appears from the above analysis that a minimum salary of \$3,029 should be provided in the community described. It should be noted that no provision is made for owning a car, for operating a car, for care of dependents, for travel, for interest on investment, or for expenses in attending professional meetings.

If a teacher in the small city used in the illustration were receiving a salary of only \$2,400, it is obvious that such a teacher would be forced to curtail or eliminate one or more of the essential expenses listed. Such a teacher would soon become frustrated and a likely candidate for that group of teachers who are in mental ill health and perhaps in physical ill health.

The teacher has a right, also, to expect that the board of education



and the community will provide working conditions which are conducive to health, mutuality, and the use of intelligence in solving problems. Research has demonstrated that the following practices have been most valuable for ensuring the working conditions mentioned:<sup>11</sup>

1. Providing an adequate professional library for the use of the teachers.
2. Providing for sabbatical leave to study, travel, or recover health.
3. Providing adequate policies concerning sick leaves.
4. Providing periodic health examinations for teachers at school expense.
5. Providing for medical service and hospital service by means of group insurance.
6. Inviting teachers to attend meetings of the board of education.
7. Granting teachers short leaves of absence with pay to attend educational meetings and conventions.
8. Giving salary increments for extensive activity within the school system for the purpose of study of local school problems, curriculum revision, guidance, and pupil evaluation.
9. Rewarding teachers financially for active participation in an in-service education program carried on within the school system.
10. Rewarding teachers financially for research and inquiry concerning local school problems.
11. Rewarding teachers financially for professional writing concerning local school problems.
12. Rewarding teachers financially for utilizing community resources in solving problems of the school.

The teachers have a right to expect boards of education to adopt policies which provide for cooperative efforts at curriculum development; which promote the pooling of the best judgments of the teaching staff; which provide for experimentation with classroom organization, administration, and procedures; which encourage teachers as well as administrators to participate in the planning of new school buildings and in the remodeling of old ones; which secure cooperation of the entire teaching staff in defining and clarifying of the conditions essential for adequate performance of professional services, such as physical conditions of work, matters of health and hygiene, necessary equipment, materials, determining salaries, planning the school budget, and determination of school policies.

The most important criterion for judging a board of education and its administrative machinery and policies is: Have the teachers in the school system grown? If the policies of the board of education and the work of the board's chief executive have brought about coordinated, cooperative thinking and planning on the part of teachers; if the admin-

<sup>11</sup> C. A. Weber, "Techniques of In-service Education Applied in North Central Secondary Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly*, 16(2):196-198 (October, 1942).



istration has substituted leadership for authority; if the administrator and the board of education have examined the deliberations of the teaching staff and, after coming to agreement with the staff in their deliberations, have executed the plans of action agreed upon with dispatch and understanding; if the board of education has set the stage so that administrative staff members are looked upon as leaders of rather than masters of their colleagues; if the board has arranged things so that the chief administrative officer conceives of his task as coordinator of the ideas and procedures initiated by the staff through cooperative effort; and if the board expects its superintendent's proposals to the board to be the results of consensus of the best judgment of his professional staff, then the working conditions are likely to promote health and mutuality, and the use of intelligence in solving problems.

Teachers are entitled to adequate provision for sick leave and for leaves of absence for the purposes of self-improvement or for studying problems of the school.

At the present time granting teachers leaves of absence to study or travel is an infrequent practice in the public schools. Granting such leaves with pay is almost unheard of, although a few school systems do it occasionally. But those schools which have granted teachers leaves of absence for study or travel, and which have provided some pay for teachers while on sick leave, have found the practice to be most valuable. In 1943 about 10 per cent of the secondary schools in a sample of schools in twenty states occasionally granted leaves with some pay to teachers for the purpose of study or educational travel. Every one of these schools reported that the practice was of great value to the schools in terms of general improvement of the work being done in the schools.<sup>12</sup>

Actually, the greatest obstacle to providing a program for leaves of absence for study and travel is the fact that most school staffs have never really cooperatively studied the problem and have never worked out a well-devised plan for attacking local school problems. Leaves of absence for the purposes mentioned have been granted on an individual basis rather than as a result of careful study by the teachers and the board of education. If boards of education would provide for the means by which, as a result of study of local problems, certain members of the staff could be delegated to take a leave of absence to study how other schools and communities solved similar problems, the results would be likely to improve the local schools immediately.

It is generally recognized that cumulative sick leave is a right which teachers have. Nearly all schools have some form of sick leave, and well over half the schools have some form of cumulative sick leave. In the

<sup>12</sup> C. A. Weber, "A Summary of the Findings of the Sub-committee on In-service Education," *North Central Association Quarterly*, 17(3):281-287 (January, 1943).



state of Illinois legislation was enacted in 1947 which made cumulative sick leave mandatory.

Teachers have a right to expect tenure in their positions as long as they are meeting the legal requirements and as long as they are assuming the professional responsibilities expected by the board of education.

If the teacher has the rights enumerated here, it is important to call attention to the obligations of teachers, too. Certainly no teacher would expect to assume such important rights without, at the same time, showing willingness to accept responsibilities.

The teacher has an obligation to be adequately and appropriately prepared to teach in the assignment agreed upon by the teacher and the board; such a teacher has an obligation to be properly certified by the appropriate state agency.

The teacher has an obligation to grow in service, to become an increasingly good teacher. If teachers are to grow in service, they must make every effort to participate in group deliberations concerning problems of the school in which they are working, they must cease to look at educational problems only through eyes of subject-matter specialists, they must become concerned with the common problems of all teachers, they must cease to be complacent.

If the teacher is to grow in service, he must not be content with mere accumulation of college credit or additional degrees. He has an obligation to participate in the types of activity within the school itself which have been discovered to be fruitful in terms of engendering growth.

The teacher has an obligation, also, to return to teacher-education institutions, such as colleges, teachers' colleges, and universities, for additional professional education and for further study in subject-matter areas. Just as the competent physician or surgeon constantly returns to medical and surgical clinics to observe and to learn the newest and latest techniques and to learn about the newest drugs, so must the teacher assume the obligation to return periodically to the sources of new facts, new information, new ideas, and new thinking. If a teacher is to keep abreast of new developments, new methods, new and promising practices, new theories, new research in his field, new research in the field of learning and method, new plans of action for evaluation of pupil progress, and new points of view, such a teacher has an obligation to return to teacher-education institutions at periodic intervals.

Teachers have an obligation to work with other teachers in making inquiry into problems which arise within the school and the school system, and they have, also, an obligation to share their understanding, knowledge, and information concerning such problems with other teachers. Every teacher has an obligation to contribute, as he is able, to the growth of every other teacher.



Teachers have an obligation to read current books in their subject-matter areas, to read current professional journals, to read current professional books; they have an obligation to become familiar with extensive educational studies currently in progress in other schools, in state departments, in other areas; and they have an obligation to share their knowledge of these matters with other teachers.

Teachers have an obligation to gain proficiency in participation in group-thinking situations and in contributing to the leadership of such situations. They should become increasingly proficient in surveying and analyzing the natural and cultural landscapes with particular reference to community processes and in utilizing the data developed in improving the educational program. They are obligated to gain proficiency in observing the individual learner and in organizing such observations into meaningful interpretations of the growth processes of the child so that a working knowledge of how children learn can be used in evaluating the teaching-learning situation. Every teacher is obligated to gain proficiency in participating with learners in the derivation of effective teaching-learning policies, procedures, and units of instruction. Teachers should gain proficiency in evaluating educational programs and the specific outcomes of learning experiences of individual pupils. Teachers are obligated, finally, to become always more able in the process of interpreting the educational program to the public.

### *Basic Principles Governing the Salary Schedule*

Certain principles concerning employment of teachers should be followed, or a salary schedule will be extremely difficult to develop or administer. These principles are as follows:

1. When a new teacher is added to a school staff, such teacher should be specifically prepared to teach in the area of assignment.
2. Specifications governing the type of person needed to fill a vacancy should be prepared prior to any attempt to investigate candidates or to accept applications.
3. When experienced teachers from other school systems are employed, boards of education should insist upon adequate evidence that such experience has included satisfactory service.
4. Members of the teaching staff should have a definite part in determining the specifications for a new teacher and should have an opportunity to share in the actual selection of a new teacher.
5. Initial employment of a teacher should be with a written understanding that the first year of employment is a temporary one and that employment for the first year is probationary in character.
6. Where tenure laws exist, a careful reevaluation of the services of teachers should be made prior to granting tenure.



7. Salaries should be determined by objective evidence, not by the subjective estimate of one or two people because research does not support the validity of such subjective judgments.
8. The salary schedule should determine the *basis for salaries for all professional agents including teachers, administrators, supervisors, principals, assistant principals, counselors, and specialists regardless of sex or teaching level.*
9. The salary schedule should be a plan for rewarding teachers for engaging in activities which are likely to result in growth and in improvement of the school's program and services.
10. The salary schedule should provide for three separate and distinct determinations:
  - a. What is to be rewarded and in what proportion.
  - b. A conversion factor suited to the local community.
  - c. The actual salary.
11. The first aspect above (item 10a) should be a long-term plan and should remain relatively constant from year to year. Changes should be made only after careful and thoughtful deliberation of the professional staff and of the board of education.
12. The third aspect (item 10c) should be determined by multiplying the points earned in the salary schedule by a *conversion factor* which has been determined by the board of education for the particular community. This conversion factor should remain constant except for annual modifications. If the factor is set at \$10, it might be changed to \$9.50 for one year or to \$10.50 for one year, but it would revert to \$10 again the next year unless specific action were taken to prevent it.
13. Provision should be made to compensate for changes in the economic conditions of the country and for local costs of food, clothing, and shelter, but such provisions should not tamper with part a of principle 10 above.
14. If a board of education requires a professional employee to assume responsibilities which require him to serve for a period longer than the period in which classes are in session, such an employee should be compensated proportionately.
15. Assignments should be only upon recommendation of professional agents.
16. The salary schedule should encourage growth of teachers in service.
17. Institutional credit earned while a teacher is in service should be such as to warrant the assertion that such credit is evidence of further study for the purpose of becoming a more competent teacher.
18. Regardless of the number of years of teaching experience, the number of college degrees, or the number of institutional credits, teachers should, at periodic intervals, be required to furnish the board of education objective evidence that they have kept abreast of theory, practice, and research pertaining to education in general and their own fields in particular.
19. Salaries should be such as to enable the school district to attract and hold competent teachers who are growing.
20. The salary schedule should encourage teachers to work together as profes-



sional people for the purpose of solving the basic local professional problems.

21. The professional staff should have jurisdiction over the problems of in-service education.
22. The professional staff should be held responsible for initiating changes in part *a* of principle 10.
23. The board of education should be responsible for initiating changes in part *b* of 10 above.

### *The General Plan of the Salary Schedule*

There are three aspects of the salary schedule presented in this discussion:

1. The salary points credited to a teacher.
2. The conversion factor.
3. The actual salary, which is the product of the number of salary points credited to a teacher and the conversion factor.

Each of these three aspects will be discussed separately. It should be made clear at this point that the determination of the salary points in part 1 *is not* the determination of the salary of the teacher. A salary of a teacher can be easily computed after the conversion factor has been determined by multiplying the number of salary points credited to a teacher by the conversion factor.

*The salary points credited to a teacher.* It should be possible for a teacher to earn salary points in six different ways, as follows:

1. By earning institutional credit from a recognized and approved college, university, or teachers' college (approval to be by the state department of education).
2. Through experience as a full-time teacher in the public schools.
3. By demonstrating on a standardized examination that he ranks above the 50th percentile in the understanding of the aims, purposes, methods, and problems of the public schools in general, and of his field in particular. (The National Teacher Examinations prepared and scored by the National Committee on Teacher Examinations of the American Council on Education or some other instrument specifically designed to meet this need is suggested.)
4. By being assigned to work for a longer period than the number of months classes are held.
5. By having specialized abilities required by the board of education for assignment to positions of superintendent of schools, school physician, school architect, school psychologist.
6. By participation in activities, other than extracurricular assignments included in load, which are considered by the professional staff to be of value in promoting growth of teachers in service.



*Requirements for salary points from institutional credit*

1. Every teacher must have on file in the office of the superintendent a complete transcript of all course work taken in each college, teachers' college, or university which the teacher has attended.
2. All such transcripts must have credits expressed in terms of semester hours, or if expressed in some other terms, the teacher must file a statement from the college showing clearly how such credit can be translated to semester hours.
3. All initial bachelor's degrees shall be counted as equivalent to 120 semester hours regardless of the number of semester hours earned by the teacher.
4. The number of credits earned as of April 1 shall determine the number of salary points in this category for the school year beginning September 1 following April.
5. No salary points shall be allowed for institutional credit unless a transcript of such credit is on file in the office of the superintendent of schools. It is the responsibility of the teacher to see that such transcripts are on file.

*Table of salary points from institutional credit*

1. If a teacher does not hold a bachelor's degree, he shall be credited with 2 salary points for each semester hour of credit earned, provided that the total shall not exceed 200.
2. If a teacher has a bachelor's degree but has earned no collegiate credit beyond the bachelor's degree, he shall be credited with 240 salary points.
3. For each semester hour of credit earned beyond the bachelor's degree, a teacher shall be credited with 2 salary points.
4. If a teacher earns a master's degree, such teacher shall be credited with 10 salary points in addition to those earned from credit as expressed in item 3 above (for each such degree if more than one).
5. If a teacher is awarded a Ph.D. or D.Ed. or other earned doctoral degree, such teacher shall be credited with 50 salary points in addition to those credited for semester hours of credit beyond the bachelor's degree as in item 3 above and in addition to those credited for master's degrees as in item 4.
6. If a teacher earns more than one master's degree, such teacher shall be credited with 10 salary points for each such degree in addition to salary points earned from semester hours of credit. (Add 4 points for additional bachelor's degrees.)
7. If a teacher is selected by the faculty and/or the board of education as a person to attend a workshop or summer session or extension class for the particular purpose of doing research on some project being carried on by the staff and/or the board of education, such a teacher may be credited with not more than 10 salary points by action of the professional staff and approval of the board of education. Such salary points shall be over and above those earned from credit. (Selection by the faculty shall mean approval by a committee of the teachers within the school in school systems where the faculty exceeds twenty in number.) Such approval shall be in



writing and shall state the specific assignment given the teacher. The board of education must approve such assignment, and its approval must be recorded in the official minutes of the board. Final salary-point credit shall not be effective until the faculty and the board have been given a written report by the teacher on the assignment. The faculty shall recommend and the board shall approve, prior to pursuit of the assignment by the selected person, of the number of salary points to be earned, provided this number shall not exceed 10.

8. If a teacher is invited by a university or national education agency to participate in a summer workshop because of such teacher's outstanding ability to contribute to the workshop, such teacher shall, if approval is granted by the board of education, be entitled to 10 salary points in addition to those earned from credit, provided that no teacher shall be entitled to earn credit in such a manner more than once every three years.

*Salary points from experience.* A teacher shall be credited with salary points for years of experience in the public schools according to the following table:

	<i>Number of salary points</i>
Beginning teacher.....	none
One year of experience, but less than two years.....	40
Two years of experience, but less than three years.....	60
Three years of experience, but less than four years.....	70
Four years of experience, but less than five years.....	79
Five years of experience, but less than six years.....	87
Six years of experience, but less than seven years.....	94
Seven years, but less than eight.....	100
Eight years, but less than nine.....	106
Nine years, but less than ten.....	111
Ten years, but less than eleven.....	116
Eleven years, but less than twelve.....	120
Twelve years, but less than thirteen.....	123
Thirteen years, but less than fourteen.....	125
For each year above thirteen years, add.....	1

*Salary points from standardized examination such as the National Teacher Examination.* Any teacher, during his 3d, 6th, 9th, 12th, 15th, 18th, 21st, 24th, 27th, or 30th year of teaching, may take the National Teacher Examinations at board of education expense, and is encouraged to do so. If a teacher ranks above the 90th percentile in both the general examination and in the examination in his field of assignment in the school in which he is teaching, such teacher shall be credited with 10 salary points. Similarly, if such teacher ranks below the 90th percentile but above the 75th percentile in both the general and specialized areas, he shall be credited with 5 salary points. Similarly, if a teacher ranks above the 50th percentile in the examination but does not qualify



for either 10 or 5 credited salary points, such teacher shall be credited with 2 salary points.

*Salary points from extra length of service in a year.* If a teacher is required by the board of education to work more than the number of months school is in session, he shall be credited, *during the year of such assignment only*, with salary points added as follows:

1. In nine-month schools, increase the total by  $\frac{1}{36}$  for each week of service in excess of 36.
2. In ten-month schools, increase the total by 2.5 per cent for each week of service in excess of 40.

	9-month school, fraction of total for 9 months	10-month school, per cent of total for 10 months
One week extra.....	$\frac{1}{36}$	2.5%
Two weeks extra.....	$\frac{1}{18}$	5.0
Three weeks extra.....	$\frac{1}{12}$	7.5
Four weeks extra.....	$\frac{1}{9}$	10.0
Five weeks extra.....	$\frac{5}{36}$	12.5
Six weeks extra.....	$\frac{1}{6}$	15
Seven weeks extra.....	$\frac{7}{36}$	17.5
Eight weeks extra.....	$\frac{2}{9}$	20.0
Nine weeks extra.....	$\frac{1}{4}$	22.5
Ten weeks extra.....	$\frac{5}{18}$	25.0
Eleven weeks extra.....	$\frac{11}{36}$	
Twelve weeks extra.....	$\frac{1}{3}$	

*Credits earned for special abilities required for superintendent of schools, school physician, school architect, school psychologist.* This credit shall be determined by the board of education at the time of employment of such specialized personnel, but should not exceed 100 salary points. It is recommended that the number of salary points credited by this provision be determined after consultation with representatives elected by the teaching staff. If in the judgment of both the teaching-staff representatives and the board, the number of salary points credited under this category should be in excess of 100, the board would be on much more solid ground than if such action were taken independently.

*Salary credits earned from participation in activities which the teaching staff believes to be productive of growth in service*

1. The total number of salary points which can be earned under this category per year shall not exceed 12. Furthermore, the total of points earned shall apply for one year only, but one-fourth or 3, whichever is the smaller, shall be permanent additions to the number of salary points credited to a teacher. (Example: If a teacher earned 9 such points in 1952, such a teacher would



have 9 points added for 1953, but only 2 could be used from this total as a permanent addition.)

2. The number of salary points earned under this category shall be determined on April 1 of each year and shall apply on the salary for the year beginning September 1 next.
3. Details regarding activities which shall entitle teachers to salary points under this caption shall be worked out in advance by the faculty or by a committee elected by the faculty. Such details shall include
  - a. Description of the activity.
  - b. Salary points to be earned.
  - c. Evaluation of participation.

Schools have found the following activities to be worthwhile activities for engendering growth in service:

- a. Teachers conducting seminars open to other teachers on pertinent subjects.
- b. Participation in such seminars.
- c. Committee activity to study the curriculum or some problem assigned by the faculty.
- d. Research on, or study of, a problem designated by the faculty as a significant one in the schools (e.g., developing an audio-visual aids program, improvement of the school library, improvement of the marking system, parent-teacher rapport, etc.).
- e. Reading and reporting to the faculty upon new books, articles in professional journals, etc.
- f. Making a detailed study of the interests, needs, and problems of children in the school.
- g. Holding a specified number of personal conferences with parents.
- h. Representing the school at professional meetings.
- i. Working on a committee to develop an orientation program for new teachers or new students.
- j. Educational travel.

*Teachers themselves will be able to add many more activities which have been found to be effective for encouraging and promoting growth of teachers.*

*It is very important that teachers should devise their own plans in this area. Principals and superintendents should feel free to offer suggestions, but they should not attempt to dictate the policy.*

It is significant that teachers should be required to set up a means for evaluation as well as a list of activities. *No salary points should be allowed unless a definite plan of evaluation has been devised and unless such a plan is used.*

It is very important that extracurricular assignments should not be included here. The reason for this is that extracurricular assignments should be taken into consideration when determining the load of teachers. Furthermore, experience has shown that it is impossible to



develop wholesome morale among teachers when extra pay for extra-curricular assignments is given.

*It should be pointed out that no teacher is required, under this schedule plan, to engage in any activity. The choice is his—and so the rewards are up to him.*

The reason for counting only one-fourth of the salary points earned under this caption as permanent additions is that sporadic attempts to grow in service are not as valuable as continuous efforts to do so.

A teacher may secure salary points by earning institutional credit and college degrees, from mere service in a school system but not equally for each year, by ranking highly on the National Teacher Examinations, by being assigned for longer periods than the regular school session, by having specialized activities, by participation in activities which the teachers themselves feel are valuable for promoting teacher growth.

The number of salary points credited is used to calculate the salary, but it is not the salary. The salary of a teacher is the product of the number of salary points credited to a teacher and the conversion factor. The establishment of the conversion factor appears below.

### *The Conversion Factor*

The conversion factor should be determined by the board of education and staff by the following procedure:

1. Secure data on room rent in the community and strike an average weekly rental which single teachers *are required to pay*. Multiply this by 52.
2. Secure data on cost of meals per day for a single teacher eating at a clean, well-regarded restaurant in the community. Multiply this by 365.
3. Estimate the amount which a single teacher would find it necessary to spend in a year to dress appropriately in the community. (Do not assume that the teacher has a surplus of clothing which may have been purchased by his parents.)
4. Add the annual premium necessary to purchase a \$5,000 life insurance policy at age twenty-five.
5. Calculate the amount required per year to purchase an annuity at age twenty-five with retirement at age sixty which would provide at age sixty an income of \$150 per month. (It may be necessary to increase the \$150 to a greater figure as time goes on.)
6. Estimate the amount a single teacher would pay for local and state taxes.
7. Calculate the cost of tuition, books, etc. (not food, housing) for attendance at summer school at the state university. Divide this sum by 5.
8. Secure from the state university what it would cost a teacher to take three semester hours of work in extension courses. Divide this by 3.
9. Estimate the cost of professional books and magazines which a teacher should purchase annually at \$25.



10. Estimate annual dues to teachers' organizations at \$20.
11. Estimate what the average teacher is expected to contribute to such local charitable agencies as the church, Red Cross, boy scouts, girl scouts, PTA, Chamber of Commerce, Community Chest, etc.
12. Estimate the amount of money required for a teacher to protect himself against illness and accident in the form of insurance.
13. Estimate what the average adult at age thirty must pay for dental and ocular care.
14. Estimate what a teacher should have for his own recreation including theater, clubs, lodge activity, snacks, smokes, parties, attendance at social functions, travel, recreational activities such as golf, tennis, attendance at ball games, etc.
15. Estimate what a teacher must pay for personal grooming, *i.e.*, haircuts, permanents, cosmetics, shaves, soap, towels, etc. (A man who gets a haircut twice a month will spend \$25 on this item alone.) Cleaning, pressing, laundry, etc.
16. Add items 1 to 15 inclusive, then secure from current Federal income-tax tables the annual Federal income tax to be paid by a single person whose salary is equal to this sum.
17. Add items 1 to 16.
18. Divide this total by 240 (the number of salary points credited to a beginning teacher with a bachelor's degree only).

The resultant figure will give an approximate value to the conversion factor. After this has been done, round off the conversion factor to the nearest one-tenth. (Examples: Quotient is 11.21, use 11.2 as conversion factor. Quotient is 11.78, use 11.8 as conversion factor.)

It will be found wise to submit the calculations to teachers so that any miscalculations can be discovered at an early date.

Earlier it was pointed out that the sum of these sixteen essential expenses in one community was \$3,029. In such a community the conversion factor would be 12.6.

In establishing the conversion factor, the board should exercise great care and should utilize the best judgment of the professional staff and informed, intelligent members of the community. Furthermore, once the conversion factor has been established by the board for its particular situation, changes should not be made in it by caprice or careless action.

It is recommended that the board of education adopt a policy which would make it unlikely that the conversion factor would be changed more often than once every two years, and then only after joint study of the problem by the board, members of the community, and representatives from the professional staff.

If in any one year unusual conditions warrant special cost-of-living adjustments, it is recommended that such adjustments be granted to all



teachers on a flat-sum basis and that they be for periods of one year only. By following this procedure to meet unusual annual needs, the emphasis is upon the temporary nature of the adjustment. If after two years it appears that permanent adjustments should be made, a reexamination of the conversion factor would be in order.

The chief advantage of the focusing of attention on the conversion factor rather than upon the total salary structure is that the focus is where it ought to be, namely, upon that aspect of the salary plan which is directly related to economic conditions and the consumer price index in the community.

### *Special Problems Related to the Salary Schedule*

In this chapter some attention is focused on the following questions:<sup>13</sup>

1. What about dependents and increased salaries for men and women who have dependents?
2. What about the use of merit ratings and giving special increments to those who rank very high by use of such ratings?
3. What about putting people already in the school system on the schedule?

*Dependents and their relation to the salary schedule.* The writer believes that the salary schedule should ignore dependency as a factor for the following reasons:

1. Federal income-tax provisions take this factor into account and offer some relief. For example, a single teacher with a salary of \$3,500 and no dependents in 1952 paid a Federal income tax of \$585, making his net spendable income about \$2,915, while a married man with two children who received the same salary was required to pay an income tax of only \$171, thus leaving a spendable income of about \$3,329. Thus, this particular married teacher was granted relief to the extent of \$414 per year.
2. People who assume the responsibilities of the support of dependents should make a special effort to earn additional salary points according to the plan outlined previously. If the salary schedule makes it possible for a teacher to earn additional salary points by virtue of his own choice rather than by having increases doled out at the will of authority above him, there is little excuse for asking special favors.
3. Dependency is not something peculiar to the teaching profession, and yet one could search long and hard for evidence that skilled laborers, office managers, physicians, lawyers, and others receive extra income simply because they have dependents.
4. The salary schedule presented here makes it possible for salaries to be high enough to meet the basic needs and encourages teachers to participate in activities which will increase the "take-home pay."

<sup>13</sup> Sick leave, leaves of absence, and other similar matters are discussed in Chapter 10.



*What about merit ratings?* The writer believes that merit ratings are extremely questionable in terms of validity, but he realizes that in the future they may be so developed as to be extremely worthwhile if boards of education will encourage teachers to share actively in the development of such ratings.

However, regardless of the assumption that such merit ratings can be developed to be very worthwhile instruments, *this writer believes that they should not be used in determining salaries paid to teachers except in that category labeled "Salary credits earned from participation in activities which the teaching staff believes to be productive of growth in service."* If the teachers themselves feel that merit ratings are of sufficient validity to warrant increased salaries to those rated highly by them, they should provide for it under this category. It should not be imposed by the board of education.

However, in the first years of teaching, some plan should be devised for the purpose of evaluating the services of a new teacher, and if such a teacher is found to be a poor educational risk, the teacher should not be reemployed. Similarly, evaluations during any probationary period preliminary to tenure status should be used for what they are worth in determining whether or not a teacher is to be placed on permanent tenure.<sup>14</sup>

Sound evaluation plans, if devised, might well be used, also, for the purpose of selection of teachers for more responsible positions, such as vice principal, principal, supervisor, specialist in guidance, counseling, and so forth.

There is, according to this writer, a place for evaluation of teachers if methods are validated and cooperatively developed and administered, but not in the determination of salaries except by act of the teaching staff itself.

Actually, teachers are not opposed to the general idea of evaluation as much as they are opposed to use of merit ratings in fixing salaries. This opposition is sound. Boards of education will find that much better teacher morale will result if the suggestions offered here are employed.

*What about putting people already in the school system on the salary schedule described?* One of the chief problems encountered by school officials, and one which causes much real trouble, is that of placing teachers who are currently employed in the school district on schedule. Scores of school systems have salary schedules which are on paper only because large numbers of teachers are not on schedule; some are receiving salaries lower than provided in the schedule, while others are receiving salaries higher than provided in the schedule. A definite plan for accomplishing the placement of teachers on schedule should be

<sup>14</sup> See Chapter 6, Evaluating the Services of Teachers.



officially adopted by boards of education. The following is suggested.

*Teachers behind schedule.* If the current salary being paid a teacher is lower than that which is provided for in the salary schedule outlined in this discussion, the following steps should be taken:

1. Divide the teacher's present salary by the conversion factor.
2. Calculate the number of salary points credited to said teacher.
3. Subtract the figure found in item 1 from the figure found in item 2. If the difference is 10 or less, place the teacher on schedule without further ado. If the difference exceeds 10, credit the teacher with 10 salary points for the first year the new salary schedule is in effect, and notify such teacher that the balance will be credited to his total of salary points as an addition to those earned at the rate of not more than 10 per year until the balance is credited to him.

**EXAMPLE A:**

Teacher X now receives \$3,400, and the number of salary points credited to him is 348, and the conversion factor is \$10. \$3,400 divided by \$10 gives a quotient of 340. The difference between 348 and 340 is 8, which is less than 10. This teacher should receive a salary of \$3,480 the next year to be on schedule.

**EXAMPLE B:**

Teacher Y now receives \$3,400, and the number of salary points credited to him is 375, and the conversion factor is \$10. \$3,400 divided by \$10 is 340 points. The difference between 375 and 340 is 35. Such a teacher would be credited with the following:

<i>Year of schedule</i>	<i>Points</i>
1st.....	350
2d.....	360, plus those earned during the year
3d.....	370, plus those earned during the year
4th.....	375, plus those earned during the year

*Teachers who are ahead of schedule.* In the case of teachers who are ahead of schedule, salaries should remain constant until such a time as the product of salary points credited to such teacher and the conversion factor exceeds the present salary of the teacher. No further increments should be given such a teacher until such teacher has earned sufficient salary points that the product of the credited salary points and the conversion factor exceeds the salary of the teacher. At this point the teacher is on schedule.

**EXAMPLES OF THE APPLICATION OF THE SCHEDULE PLAN**

**EXAMPLE A:**

Conversion factor, \$12. School is in session ten months.

Mary Smith is a beginning teacher who has just graduated from the state university with a bachelor's degree. Miss Smith has been employed by a



school district where the conversion factor has been set at \$12. Her salary would be the product of 240 and \$12, a salary of \$2,880.

#### EXAMPLE B:

John Doaks is principal of the junior high school. He is employed on an eleven-month contract. He has a bachelor's degree, a master's degree, and 41 credits of institutional work beyond the bachelor's degree. He has been a teacher for eleven years. He has never taken the National Teacher Examinations, and he has never earned any salary points from in-service activity within the school system.

Mr. Doaks has the following salary points:

	<i>Points</i>
Institutional credit.....	332
From experience.....	116
From examination.....	0
From special activity.....	0
From in-school activities.....	0
Subtotal.....	448
Increase—eleven months' service (add 10 per cent).....	44
Total.....	492

The product of 492 and \$12 gives Mr. Doaks a salary of \$5,904.

#### EXAMPLE C:

Miss Jones has been teaching for twenty-six years in the elementary schools. She never earned a bachelor's degree, although she has 131 semester hours of credit which she has earned over a period of thirty years. Miss Jones has been very much interested in audio-visual aids for the elementary schools, and last year the elementary school teachers requested that she represent the school at a workshop in audio-visual aids at the state university. Every year Miss Jones has participated actively in staff planning, and every year she has earned at least 6 salary points in this area. The schedule has been in operation for ten years. Last year she earned 10 points for in-service activities. She ranked in the 90th percentile in her twenty-fourth year, and in the 75th percentile in her twenty-first year on the National Teacher Examinations.

	<i>Points</i>
Institutional credit.....	200
Experience for first 13 years.....	125
Experience for last 13 years.....	13
From National Teacher Examinations.....	15
From special abilities.....	0
From extra time.....	0
From in-service education last year.....	10
Cumulated over 10 years.....	8
Total.....	371

Product of 371 and \$12 yields a salary of \$4,452 for Miss Jones.



## EXAMPLE D:

Miss Rankin, like Miss Jones, has no bachelor's degree, but she has 131 semester hours of credit and twenty-six years of service. She has never shown any interest in National Teacher Examinations nor in activities within school likely to result in growth. She has never shown any interest in group planning or study of local school problems. On the contrary, she has been content to teach her classes and that is that.

	<i>Points</i>
From institutional credit.....	200
From experience.....	138
Total (no other credit).....	<u>338</u>

Miss Rankin's salary is \$4,056. (Note that Miss Jones is \$396 better off financially than Miss Rankin even though she earned no more institutional credit than Miss Rankin and has the same number of years of experience.)

## EXAMPLE E:

Miss Erickson has been teaching four years. She has her bachelor's degree and her master's degree with 30 semester hours of graduate work. Her work on the M.A. has taken all her time, so she could not participate heavily in other in-service activities.

	<i>Points</i>
From institutional credit.....	310
From experience.....	70
Total.....	<u>380</u>

Salary of Miss Erickson is \$4,560.

## EXAMPLE F:

Miss White started at the same time as Miss Erickson, but she does not plan to teach very long, so she did not seek a master's degree or do any graduate work. She has been a satisfactory teacher in the classroom, but has not attempted to earn salary points other than through experience.

	<i>Points</i>
From institutional credit.....	240
From experience.....	70
Total.....	<u>310</u>

Miss White's salary is, \$3,720. (It can be seen that Miss Erickson's efforts paid dividends in cash to the extent of \$840 per year.)

## EXAMPLE G:

Dr. J. R. Owens is superintendent of schools. He has had twenty years of teaching experience. The board has set 50 points as a premium for the superintendent. Dr. Owens is hired on a twelve-month basis.



	<i>Points</i>
Institutional credit	
Bachelor's degree.....	240
Master's degree.....	10
Doctor's degree.....	50
90 semester hours of graduate work.....	180
Experience.....	132
Special abilities.....	50
National Teacher Examinations.....	0
In-service activities.....	0
Subtotal.....	652
20 per cent for 2 extra months.....	136
Total.....	788

Salary of Dr. Owens is \$9,456.

The salaries of the teachers listed in these examples from three communities with differing conversion factors are compared below.

Teacher	Salary points	A(\$8*)	B(\$10*)	C(\$15*)
Mary Smith.....	240	\$2,120	\$2,400	\$ 3,600
John Doaks.....	492	3,936	4,920	7,380
Miss Jones.....	371	2,968	3,710	5,565
Miss Rankin.....	338	2,704	3,380	5,070
Miss Erickson.....	380	3,040	3,800	5,700
Miss White.....	310	2,480	3,100	4,650
Dr. Owens.....	788	6,304	7,880	11,820

\* Conversion factor.

This salary plan is offered as a new approach to the problem. Teachers and administrators working with boards of education can doubtless improve on it as time goes on. There is nothing in any system which cannot, in time, with careful study and thoughtful deliberation, be improved. The reader is urged to accept the proposals made in this chapter as a beginning, not the end. The author is firmly convinced that teachers and administrators are capable of improving upon suggestions made here, and they are encouraged to do so.

## SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Using the scales provided in this chapter, calculate the conversion factor for your school.
2. Using the method suggested in this chapter, calculate the salary points you would now have.
3. What are the objections to the new approach to salary scheduling offered here?
4. What improvements would you make in this salary-schedule plan?



5. What is your reaction to the discussion of salary points earned for special abilities?
6. Will lazy teachers object to the proposals of this chapter?
7. What are the chief obstacles to adoption of the salary plan presented?

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## CHAPTER 16 *Teachers' Organizations*

Teachers have found it necessary to organize. Early patterns of school administration were cast in the same molds which produced authoritarian line-staff patterns so characteristic of military organizations and industry. Authority legally vested in the board of education was delegated to the superintendent of schools, who delegated authority to lesser administrative agents. As a result, conflicts arose between the administrators and teachers in school systems. These conflicts have led teachers to band together for the purpose of providing a united front against practices which they considered unfair and unjust. Unfair practices relative to promotions, unjust dismissals, low salaries, inadequate sick-leave policies, inspectional methods, and lack of protection for teachers against the pressures of those who desired to exercise thought and behavior control over teachers caused teachers to organize.

Objectionable, unwise, and unfair administrative practices have been the primary cause of teacher organization. Teachers have realized that to cope with maladministration of personnel problems, they must have strength and unity. Teachers learned from business, politics, religious groups, medicine, law, and labor that in union there is progress, that in organization there is strength.

Basically, the objectives of teachers' organizations have been twofold: (1) to protect the welfare of teachers, and (2) to improve the schools for the benefit of children and society. Teachers have united in an almost endless array of teachers' organizations, but most of these groups have fallen into three main categories: (1) the NEA and its affiliated state teachers' associations, local units, departments, and commissions, (2) organizations affiliated with labor, and (3) organizations designed to further inquiry into more or less specific problems of public education.

In this chapter each of these three great groups of organizations will be described, and in Chapter 17 they will be discussed in their relation to personnel problems of teachers.



*The NEA and Its Affiliates*<sup>1</sup>

The NEA is the largest organization of teachers in the world. In 1952 it claimed a membership of 490,000 individual members and 950,000 affiliated members. The NEA has sixty-six affiliated state associations, 4,434 local affiliated associations, and it is now a part of the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP), which includes organizational membership from thirty-eight countries.

*Platform of the NEA.* The platform of the NEA and its affiliates is extensive. A digest of the platform appears below.

- I. Better education for the child through
  - A. Enriched curricula and better school environment.
  - B. Expansion of health programs and guidance programs.
  - C. Elimination of child labor and enforcement of attendance laws.
  - D. Unfettered teaching.
- II. Teachers are professional workers and have certain rights and responsibilities.
  - A. A responsibility to be of sound character, to be healthy, competent, and trained for their jobs.
  - B. Teachers should have and abide by a code of ethics.
  - C. Teachers should be protected in their constitutional rights of freedom of speech, worship, press, and assembly.
  - D. Teachers have a right to participate in the determination of school policies and school management.
  - E. Teachers have a right to participate in the development of personnel policies concerning load, tenure, salaries, leaves of absence, and retirement.
  - F. Teachers have a right to salaries which will attract and hold people of marked ability in the profession.
  - G. Teachers have a right to seek salary adjustments through group action.<sup>2</sup>
  - H. Teachers are protected by tenure laws, retirement systems, credit unions, and disability benefits.
  - I. Teachers have a right to participate in community affairs.
- III. High standards should be set by and for the profession.
  - A. The minimum preparation should be the bachelor's degree.
  - B. Teachers should earn the master's degree while in service.

<sup>1</sup> The material regarding the NEA and its affiliates has been drawn, by permission, from the *Handbook 1952-53* and from *The Teacher and Professional Organizations* published in 1951 by the NEA as a series of teaching units for use in professional-orientation phases of preservice teacher-education programs. The latter publication contains 128 pages packed with informative material and might well be used by teachers in service as an aid to understanding the program of the NEA and its affiliated organizations.

<sup>2</sup> This statement should be compared with the collective bargaining plank of the AFT.



- C. Certification standards should be raised, and reciprocal arrangements between states should be provided.
- D. Substandard certificates should be discontinued.
- E. There should be a minimum salary.
- F. Salary schedules should reward teachers for
  - 1. Professional education.
  - 2. Growth in service.
  - 3. Successful experience.
- G. Retirement systems should be actuarially sound.
- H. There should be reciprocity of retirement among states.
- I. Improved methods of teacher recruitment should be devised.
- IV. Adult education programs should be established to
  - A. Eliminate illiteracy among adults.
  - B. Educate for naturalization.
  - C. Improve health conditions.
- V. Adequate educational opportunities are essential to national welfare and security.
  - A. Every state should operate and maintain free schools from nursery school through the university.
  - B. All children should have equal rights to attend schools.
  - C. Complete programs of vocational education should be organized and maintained as integral parts of the local school system.
  - D. Special provisions should be made for atypical children.
  - E. Schools should operate at least 180 days, and class enrollments should not exceed 30.
  - F. There should be reorganization of school districts.
  - G. Boards of education should be nonpartisan, selected at large, with overlapping terms of office, and should be fiscally independent.
  - H. There should be no discrimination against teachers because of sex, race, color, residence, economic status, marital status, religion, or nonsubversive political beliefs.
  - I. Professional people should prepare the budget for scrutiny of the board of education.
  - J. Boards of education should be guided by the recommendation of the professional staff.
  - K. Public education should be expanded to include nursery schools, kindergartens, junior colleges, camping and recreational activities, and adult education.
  - L. Teachers' salaries should be increased proportionately if the school year is increased.
  - M. There should be established by Congress a National Board of Education to administer the U.S. Office of Education.
- VI. A complete program of financing public education should be established.
  - A. Better coordination of the taxing policies of national, state, and local units of government.
  - B. There should be Federal financial aid to public schools without Federal control.



- C. Boards of education should have financial autonomy (be fiscally independent).
- D. Each state should broaden its tax base to give relief to real and personal property.
- VII. The schools should develop appropriate programs for public relations.
  - A. Continuous programs of interpretation.
  - B. Enlisting parents, teachers, and citizens in movements to protect the interests of public education.
  - C. Establishing teacher-exchange programs.
  - D. Developing effective means for promotion of peace.
- VIII. The schools should teach children the value of our American way of life.
  - A. Members of the Communist Party should not be allowed to teach in public schools.
  - B. Teachers should expose the evils of communism and totalitarianism by studying them.
  - C. Teachers should teach children the rights, privileges, and responsibilities of citizenship in the United States.
  - D. Classroom organization and school organization should be democratic.
  - E. Children should be taught that freedom depends upon keeping our tax-supported school system free.
  - F. Schools should teach that preparedness is essential.
  - G. The American tradition of separation of church and state should be vigorously and zealously safeguarded.
  - H. Schools should teach moral and spiritual values.
  - I. Non-tax-supported schools should meet the standards of health, safety, and educational offering of tax-supported schools.
  - J. Agencies charged with the responsibility of expenditure of public funds for education or for the shaping of educational policy should devote such funds exclusively to publicly controlled and tax-supported educational institutions.

*Membership in the NEA.* Section 1 of Art. I of the bylaws of the NEA provides that

Membership of the NEA shall consist of four classes: active, associate, corresponding, and institutional, whose qualifications, rights and obligations, shall be as hereinafter prescribed; provided, however, that no person shall be admitted or continued in membership in the NEA who advocates or who is a member of an organization that advocates changing the form of government of the United States by any means not provided for in the Constitution of the United States.

Section 2 of Art. I provides that

Active members of the association shall be those actively engaged in teaching or other educational work. [Note that no mention is made of "where" the teacher teaches.]



In Sec. 8 we find,

The right to vote, to serve as a delegate in the representative assembly, and to hold office in the association or in any department thereof shall be limited to active members whose dues are paid.

In Art. IV, Sec. 2, we find, in part,

Each department shall have the right to fix qualifications of its members for the purpose of electing officers and transacting the other business of the department: provided active members of the association, and no others, shall be eligible to such departmental membership.

The Classroom Teachers Association, a department of the NEA, limits its membership to those who are actually classroom teachers, and the Association of Higher Education limits its membership to those who teach in colleges and universities. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education limits its membership to institutions. Except for these, the departments of the NEA do not restrict membership. It is assumed that only those interested will become members.

*State teachers' associations—NEA affiliates.* State teachers' organizations preceded the NEA in Alabama, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Michigan, Wisconsin, Pennsylvania, Missouri, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, South Carolina, Ohio, Rhode Island, and Vermont. The first two to be organized were in Rhode Island and New York, and by 1900 nearly every state had established a state teachers' organization of some kind. Until 1910 few, if any, of the state associations maintained permanent paid staff members or had permanent headquarters. Now practically all state associations have paid secretaries, research officers, and other professional personnel, and at least twenty-seven own their own headquarters buildings. All of the state associations publish a professional journal or a newspaper devoted to the problems of the membership. Nearly 90 per cent of the teachers employed in the public schools belong to state teachers' associations.<sup>3</sup>

The NEA has established fourteen criteria for judging a state teachers' association.<sup>4</sup>

1. There should be a definite statement of purpose emphasizing child welfare, promotion of public education, and advancement of the interests of teachers.
2. There should be strong emphasis upon the development of local associations affiliated with the state association.
3. They should be integrated with the NEA and local associations on a united dues basis whereby a teacher pays one flat amount for membership in local, state, and national organizations.

<sup>3</sup> NEA Handbook 1951, Washington, 1951.

<sup>4</sup> NEA Handbook 1952-53, Washington, August, 1952.



4. They should be adequately financed. (A fee of 1 per cent of the annual salary is considered reasonable for united dues.)
5. They should be governed by a delegate assembly large enough to represent the various areas of the state and small enough to transact business efficiently.
6. They should have executive committees which have power to act between meetings of the delegate assembly.
7. They should be departmentalized to meet the special interests of teachers.
8. They should have standing committees which transact routine business and which work on continuing problems.
9. They should have special committees to study special problems.
10. They should have an ethics commission to disseminate, interpret, and enforce ideals and standards of the profession.
11. They should have a legislative commission to promote school-district reorganization in the direction of larger administrative units, better support of education, higher standards of certification, minimum-salary laws, a retirement system, tenure and sick-leave regulations, other teacher benefits, and legislation for educational progress.
12. They should have a program of conventions, programs of research, publications, public relations, and professional study.
13. They should be serviced by an adequate, paid staff and should be housed in adequate quarters which are owned by the association.
14. They should support the program of the NEA. (At this writing, the NEA has a "Centennial Action Program.")

Most state teachers' associations hold annual state-wide meetings or meetings only for the delegate assemblies, although some hold meetings for the delegate assembly which are open to all members. About fourteen states hold annual meetings where the entire membership is entitled to vote. Seven hold annual meetings where only the delegate body attends, and the remainder hold annual legislative meetings where only delegates vote but where all members are invited to attend. In many states regional legislative assemblies are held, and only the delegates selected from the regional assemblies are entitled to vote at the annual state-wide meeting.<sup>5</sup>

Most of the real work of state teachers' association is done by committees, standing or special. The most common committees are, in order of frequency of use,<sup>6</sup>

- |                      |                        |
|----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Legislative.      | 7. Retirement.         |
| 2. Credentials.      | 8. Elections.          |
| 3. Resolutions.      | 9. Welfare.            |
| 4. Ethics.           | 10. Teacher education. |
| 5. Public relations. | 11. Tenure.            |
| 6. Finance.          | 12. Program planning.  |

<sup>5</sup> Illinois is an example.

<sup>6</sup> *The Teacher and Professional Organizations*, p. 59, NEA, Washington, 1951.



- |                              |               |
|------------------------------|---------------|
| 13. International relations. | 17. Auditing. |
| 14. Publications.            | 18. Salary.   |
| 15. Membership.              | 19. Research. |
| 16. Necrology.               |               |

These committees usually study problems assigned to them by the state associations and report to the membership at the annual meetings. It is usually customary for the state association to approve committee reports, thereby making the committee reports part of the platform or policy of the state association.

Many state associations maintain special departments. Such departments are as follows, listed in order of their frequency of appearance:<sup>7</sup>

	<i>Number of states</i>
Elementary principals.....	25
Superintendents.....	24
Secondary principals.....	23
Classroom teachers.....	21
Health and physical education.....	21
Vocational education.....	19
Foreign languages.....	17
English.....	16
Mathematics.....	16
Science.....	16
Social studies.....	16
Art.....	15
Audio-visual aids.....	15
Business education.....	15
Home economics.....	15
Library.....	15
Industrial arts.....	14
Music education.....	14
Higher education.....	12
Administration.....	10
Geography.....	9
Rural education.....	9
Supervision.....	9
Elementary education.....	8
Guidance.....	8
Childhood education.....	8
Special education.....	8
Classical education.....	7
Speech.....	7
Secondary education.....	5
Curriculum and supervision.....	5

The chief services rendered by state associations are (1) providing publications to teachers, (2) conducting research, (3) performing field services, (4) maintaining public-relations programs, (5) establishing

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*



teacher-placement services, (6) engaging in legislative work, and (7) miscellaneous services.

All state teachers' associations publish a professional journal, usually a monthly magazine which is sent to all members. Many of them also publish newsletters, legislative bulletins, letters to leaders in local or departmental groups, public-relations leaflets, and convention proceedings. Many publish special bulletins on professional problems.

About one-half of the state associations maintain a paid staff member or members to do full-time or part-time research. The research activities usually are centered around (1) legislative programs, (2) teacher welfare, (3) field services, (4) special topics suggested by members or by affiliated groups, (5) special topics suggested by nonmembers, (6) special topics suggested by the NEA, (7) special topics suggested by legislative groups outside the profession, (8) membership, (9) counseling of teachers, (10) salaries, (11) financing schools, (12) legal services, (13) leadership, (14) work with lay groups, (15) advice on public relations, (16) contacts with legislators, (17) attendance at meetings, and (18) methods of teaching.

Field services are provided in all state associations of teachers. The services are usually of the nature of speeches, attendance of officials or delegates at meetings called by local groups, conferences, speeches to lay groups, helping lay groups, helping in the development of salary schedules, helping communities in providing tenure regulations, recruiting members, counseling of teachers, providing legal services to teachers, furnishing leadership services and training, supplying communities with research services for surveys and advice on public relations, contacting legislatures, lobbying, and attending lay meetings or conferences.

Practically all state associations provide public-relations services to the membership in the form of news releases, speeches, contacts with reporters, direction of radio and television programs, articles for magazines, preparation of speeches for members of the profession or laymen, and newsletters to laymen.

Ten states maintain placement services for teachers. In most of these states the placement bureau of the state association makes a small charge for the services, but in one state the service of placement of teachers is free to all members. Usually the services are confined to the membership of the state association, but in a few the service is for teachers generally.<sup>3</sup>

The most emphasized work of state associations is in the general area of legislation. The associations of all the forty-eight states actively engage in sponsoring legislation which affects the school. They prepare bills for submission to the several state legislatures; they interpret the bills to the teachers, to the public, and to the legislators; they mobilize facts, in-

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 61.



formation, and extensive data in support of the bills; they interview legislators in support of the bills; they participate in public hearings on the bills; they recommend bills which are sponsored by nonmembers and by groups other than educational groups; they provide research on tax matters; they prepare bulletins for laymen; and they generally lobby for the bills which they sponsor. In many states legislators consider the state education association to be one of the most powerful lobbies which they encounter. In general, legislators have great respect for state education associations because they vigorously support bills with facts, information, and extensive research.

In addition to the services above described many state teachers' associations provide, in varying degrees, the following services:

1. Legal counseling on professional problems.
2. Insurance programs for sickness, disability, hospitalization, accident, and life.
3. Reading-circle materials, including professional books and magazines.
4. Credit-union services.
5. Film services.
6. Radio programs.
7. Recreational services.
8. Handbooks.
9. Assistance to local school boards on tax problems.
10. Improvement of instruction.
11. Assisting in revision of teacher education and certification.
12. Cooperation with state PTA groups.
13. Provide services for college students who plan to teach by working with teacher-educating institutions, Future Teachers of America, and other types of preservice organizations of prospective teachers.

When one examines the extensive services offered by the state associations for teachers, and when one realizes that there are more than 1,000,000 teachers who are members of the state teachers' associations, he is impressed with the enormous possibilities of service both to teachers and to the general cause of public education. Certainly no teacher who has a real interest in giving a lifetime of service to the public schools could be sincere if he did not affiliate with the state teachers' organization. Furthermore, no teacher, regardless of the number of years he expects to serve the profession of teaching can, in all honesty, deny that he should join the forces of organized teachers. Regardless of errors which have been made by state teachers' associations, the fact remains that through their efforts, the general level of public education in America has been raised tremendously, and the welfare of teachers themselves has been successfully promoted. Teachers cannot afford to ignore their responsibilities to the state organization of teachers. If they find defects



in organization, structure, or services, they should go to work as members to seek change. This is the democratic way.

### *The Local Units of the NEA*

The local unit is considered to be an important and essential part of the whole of the NEA. The parent organization believes that local units should exist in every school system because it is only in such units that the rank and file of teachers can become part of the whole organization. The NEA believes that local units should be designed to help teachers meet their own problems and that they should be designed to assist in the achievement of the general goals established by the national and state organizations. To achieve this the national association has established the following criteria for creating and operating local units:

1. It should have a dynamic program for serving its members and the community.
2. It should have a written constitution.
3. It should meet at least four times per year.
4. It should provide a program of action.
5. It should provide for unified dues with the state and national associations.
6. Its programs should be carefully planned.
7. It should keep accurate records and minutes.
8. It should be affiliated with the state association.
9. It should select delegates to attend state and national meetings and should pay expenses of such delegates.
10. It should issue a local publication.
11. It should maintain active committees for school improvement, discussion of state and national problems, development of recreational activities for teachers, establishing better public relations, studying school legislation, cooperating with state and national associations, and studying problems of teachers' welfare.

### *Departments of the NEA*

The NEA is divided into twenty-nine departments, each with separate officers, programs, and publications. Most of them have dues separate from NEA dues. These are:

1. American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.
2. American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.
3. American Association of School Administrators.
4. American Educational Research Association.
5. American Industrial Arts Association.
6. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
7. Audio-visual Instruction.
8. The Department of Classroom Teachers.
9. Elementary School Principals.



10. Association for Higher Education.
11. Home Economics Department.
12. International Council for Exceptional Children.
13. Kindergarten-Primary Education.
14. Music Education National Conference.
15. National Art Association.
16. National Association for Deans of Women.
17. National Association of Journalism Directors of Secondary Schools.
18. National Association of School Secretaries.
19. National Association of Secondary School Principals.
20. National Council for the Social Studies.
21. National Council of Administrative Women in Education.
22. National Council of Teachers of Mathematics.
23. National Retired Teachers' Association.
24. National School Public Relations Association.
25. National Science Teachers' Association.
26. Rural Education.
27. Speech Association of America.
28. United Business Education Association.
29. Vocational Education.

#### *NEA Commissions and Committees*

*The Educational Policies Commission.* The commission was created in 1935 by joint action of the NEA and its affiliate, the American Association of School Administrators. There are sixteen appointed members of the commission, twelve chosen at large and one each appointed by the Department of Classroom Teachers, the Department of Higher Education, the Elementary School Principals, and the Secondary School Principals. In addition the presidents of the NEA and AASA are ex officio members.

During the year of 1951-1952 the commission met twice, once at Washington, D.C., and once at East Lansing, Mich. Seven meetings of subcommittees were held during the year.

The commission publishes very valuable pamphlets each year. In 1951-1952 it published *Education and National Security*; *Education for All American Youth, a Further Look*; and *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools*.

Future plans call for publication of additional material on moral and spiritual values, school athletics, and ways by which schools can build better communities.

*The Legislative Commission.* In 1920 the legislative commission was created and given two major assignments: (1) to recommend the Federal legislative policies of the NEA, and (2) to work toward achievement of such policies adopted by the NEA. Each year the legislative commission reports to the NEA representative assembly and in turn gets its new assignments from that body.



The commission has worked for Federal aid for education, for Federal aid for school housing, maintenance, and operation, and it has sought to influence Congress on many other matters of legislation. Successful work of the commission requires prompt and effective support from state and local leaders at crucial moments. Because of this, state and local units frequently receive urgent requests by air mail or telegraph to assist. The commission publishes *Legislative News* for the purpose of advising members of appropriate steps to take.

*National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education.* In 1941 the NEA organized this commission and assigned to it three specific responsibilities:

(a) To bring to the general public a fuller understanding of the importance of a better education for all of our people if American democracy and way of life are to be maintained; (b) to defend teachers, schools, and the cause of education against unjust attacks and to investigate charges involving teachers, schools, educational methods and procedures, justly, fearlessly, and in the public interest; (c) to work for educational conditions essential for the perpetuation of our democracy.<sup>9</sup>

This commission investigated the situation in Mars Hill, N.C., and has just completed an investigation in Miami, Fla.

In Miami, the commission recommended (1) better professional leadership, (2) supervisors selected on the basis of their ability to work with others and to stimulate growth of teachers in service, (3) more cooperative action and less autocratic control of schools, (4) educational leadership divorced from the political arena, (5) elimination of conflicts between agencies of local control and state agencies, and (6) establishment of a citizens' committee.

This commission has done a service to education and should be called upon more often.

*National Commission on Safety Education.* This commission began work in 1944 with a staff of fifteen appointed to serve without pay and four full-time employees with pay. The commission endeavors to stimulate schools toward more active consideration of the problems of safety education. During the year 1951-1952, the major project was a national conference on safety education held at Indiana University. More than one hundred persons from forty states participated in a workshop on that occasion. A secondary project was a conference on school transportation. The commission assisted also in production of *Duck and Cover*, which is a film on civil defense for schools.

The commission has published two bulletins: *Safety in Physical Education for the Classroom Teacher* and *What Are You Doing about Civil*

<sup>9</sup> *Miami, Florida; An Investigation*, NEA Commission for the Defense of Democracy, frontispiece, October, 1952.



*Defense?* The commission's income is largely from grants from the Automotive Safety Foundation and from the National Board of Fire Underwriters.

*National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards.* This commission, organized in 1946, is charged with the responsibility for developing and carrying on, for the profession, a continuing improvement in matters of recruitment, preparation, certification, and advancement of professional standards. During 1951-1952, the commission devoted most of its energy to (1) upgrading standards by urging appropriate steps by certificating agencies, and (2) pressing for the establishment of a national professional accrediting procedure for teacher-educating agencies.

Eight regional conferences were held during the year to discuss problems of professional standards and emergency certificates.

The commission issued the following publications during 1951-1952: *The Teacher and Professional Organizations*; *The Journal of Teacher Education* (4 issues); *Newsletter*; *Teaching: A First Line of Defense*; *Manual on Certification Requirements of School Personnel in the United States*; and *Teacher Supply and Demand in the United States*, 1952.

Future plans call for a reexamination of current programs of teacher education, means for meeting the increasing demand for elementary school teachers, and establishment of effective selective recruitment programs.

*The National Council on Teacher Retirement.* In 1911 this commission began work to safeguard and strengthen retirement systems and to disseminate information on current trends and proposed legislation.

*The Committee on Citizenship.* This committee is charged with formulating national policies for encouraging effective citizenship programs in state and local associations, with emphasizing the importance of adult education for new voters, and with cooperative efforts to promote citizenship education in the school and community. It was very active during the year 1951-1952.

*Credit Unions.* This committee, organized in 1937 to help teachers organize and maintain credit unions, has published: *Teachers' Credit Unions*, *Teachers' Credit Unions: Progress and Status*, *Why Teachers' Credit Unions?* *How to Organize Teacher Credit Unions*, and *How Does Your Credit Union Rate?*

The committee studied 400 credit unions involving 100,000 teachers and more than \$23 million. Any school interested in creating a credit union or in evaluating its existing credit union should write this committee for help.

*International Relations.* This committee was created in 1920 to implement NEA policies and resolutions concerned with international relations.



It published the following in 1951-1952: *United Nations Information for Teachers*, *A Teacher's Handbook for United Nations Day or Week*, *The Teachers' Part in World Policy*, and *The Fight on International Co-operation: An Analysis of Current Attacks on the United Nations and UNESCO*.

*Professional Ethics.* A committee of the NEA appointed in 1924, developed a code of ethics which was officially adopted in 1929 and revised in 1941. During 1951 a revised code was sent to 3,890 leaders in the NEA, and this revised code was adopted in 1952. The committee considers requests from the field on alleged violations of the code. The committee is now hard at work acquainting members with the code, and it has developed a forty-page document entitled *A Unit of Study on Professional Ethics*.

*Committee on Tax Education and School Finance.* This committee, appointed in 1938, is designed to promote cooperative thinking on school aspects of tax education and public finance, to cooperate with the states in planning and adopting effective systems of state and local finance, and to develop materials to help educators and laymen solve problems of taxation and school finance.

In 1951-1952 the committee published *The Economic Outlook for Public Education* and, in cooperation with the NEA research division, organized an emergency service to provide consultation for professional associations and local districts.

It plans to continue activities that will lead to the correction of injustices due to Federal ownership of land, to develop more materials on tax education and finance, to keep the profession informed on important financial problems, and to provide work units for teacher education.

*Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom.* Since 1919 some committee has worked on the problems of tenure and academic freedom. In 1944 these activities were assigned to one committee, the Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom. This committee has issued the following documents: *Court Decisions on Teacher Tenure, 1951*; *Annual Report to the Delegate Assembly*; *Practical Personnel Policies Essential for Good Schools*; *Dismissals in Fort Myers, Florida*; and *An Investigation of Employment Procedures Which Caused Community Disturbance*. The Committee plans to investigate unjust dismissals of teachers and to make public its findings, to continue cooperation with state and local units in strengthening employment practices, to assist in improving legislation, to study existing tenure laws, and to take action as required to protect teachers against practices which infringe upon their rights as citizens.

*NEA-Adult Education Association Joint Committee.* In 1952 a joint committee from the NEA and from the Adult Education Association



(AEA) was formed. As yet, this committee has not had time to produce much material for public consumption.

*NEA and American Legion.* In 1939 the joint committee of the NEA and American Legion began its work by discussion of Federal aid to education. During 1951-1952 the committee sponsored American Education Week, held a joint committee meeting, promoted on state and local levels Legionnaire Schoolmaster Clubs, and exchanged speakers at annual conventions. In the future this committee plans to expand American Education Week with a national broadcast from a famous historical shrine as a feature attraction.

*NEA and American Library Association.* This committee dates back to 1931, but in 1950 its function was modified to include the improvement of library service in the entire field of education as well as in public schools. The committee has published a brochure on aids in the selection of books, films, and records for young people; it is beginning a film strip on school library quarters; it has published a list of children's books; and it has distributed a statement on Recommendations to Book Reviewers with Respect to Binding of Books.

*NEA and American Medical Association.* In 1921 the joint committee absorbed the work of the Health Committee of the National Council of Education and was reorganized as a joint committee of the NEA and AMA. Its newest publications are *The Physical Educator Asks about Health* and *Health Problems Affecting the Personality of School Youth*.

*NEA and American Teacher Association.* In 1928 a joint committee of the NEA and the ATA began work on the problems peculiar to teachers in colored schools. Through the efforts of this committee, the NEA now accepts, as state affiliated units, the education association for Negroes in any state in which Negroes are not eligible for membership in the state associations. This arrangement is intended to stand only until such time as integration of the separate associations can be brought about.

*NEA and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.* Since 1929 this committee has worked to develop closer working relations between the NEA and the NCPT. The committee is renewing its emphasis upon teacher selection and preparation to the end that many more able young people will enter the teaching profession.

### *The World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession*<sup>10</sup>

The NEA is a member of the WCOTP, an organization of world-wide scope which includes Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, Canada, Ceylon, China, Denmark, Ecuador, England, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Haiti, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Korea, Liberia, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nigeria, Northern Ireland, Norway, Philippines, Scotland, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, and Yugoslavia.

<sup>10</sup> Formerly World Organization of the Teaching Profession (WOTP).



This confederation is designed to unite into one powerful organization professional teachers from all over the world. Its goals are (1) to foster a conception of education directed toward the promotion of international understanding and good will, with a view to safeguarding peace, freedom, and respect for human dignity; (2) to improve teaching methods, educational organization, academic education of teachers, and professional education of teachers so as to equip them better to serve the interests of youth; (3) to defend the rights and interests of the teaching profession; and (4) to promote closer relationships between teachers in the different countries.

Every affiliated national association, including the NEA, is entitled to one delegate, with an additional delegate for every 5,000 members or part thereof, the maximum for any association being fifty.

The WCOTP has issued and distributed French and English versions of the proceedings of its delegate assembly each year and publishes the *WCOTP News*. It has compiled and published international studies and recommendations on the following subjects:

1. Educational reconstruction.
2. Education for international understanding.
3. International language.
4. International exchange of teachers.
5. Teaching current events.
6. Health education.
7. Salaries.
8. Pensions and tenure for teachers.
9. Public relations in education.

The WCOTP is recognized as a consultative agency by the United Nations Educational Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and has sent representatives to all important meetings of UNESCO. Annual delegate assemblies have been held in London, Berne, Ottawa (Canada), and Valletta (Malta). The NEA has furnished office space for the organization in Washington.

### *The Centennial Action Program of the NEA<sup>11</sup>*

The NEA has adopted a general plan of action to mark its centennial anniversary in 1957. The Centennial Action Program is designed to unify the profession, including structure, finance, leadership, and services. Its goals are:

1. An active democratic local education association in every community.
2. A strong and effective state association in every state.

<sup>11</sup> From a statement to the NEA by Joy Elmer Morgan, editor of the *Journal*, NEA *Journal*, July 3, 1951. Reprinted from the *Journal*, October, 1951, and distributed to the membership.



3. A larger, more effective national association.
4. Unified dues, a single fee covering local, state, national, and world services, collected by the local.
5. 100 per cent membership enrollment in local, state, and national associations.
6. A Future Teachers of America chapter in every institution preparing teachers.
7. Unified committees—the chairmen of local committees serving as *advisory* members of central national committees.
8. A professionally prepared and competent person in every school position.
9. A strong, adequately staffed state department of education in each state and a more adequate Federal education agency.
10. An adequate professional salary for all members.
11. For all educational personnel
  - a. Professional security guaranteed by tenure.
  - b. Sabbatical leaves.
  - c. Sick leave.
  - d. Adequate retirement.
12. Reasonable class size and equitable distribution of the teaching load.
13. Units of school administration large enough to provide for efficient operation.
14. Adequate opportunities for every child and youth.
15. Equalization and expansion of educational opportunity including needed state and *national* financing.
16. A safe, healthful, and wholesome community environment for every child and youth.
17. Adequately informed lay support of public education.
18. An able, public-spirited board of education in every community.
19. An effective world organization of the teaching profession.
20. A more effective UNESCO.

The editor of the *NEA Journal* considers that item 4 in the program is the hard core of the Centennial Action Program, that items 1, 4, and 10 are the three goals upon which all others depend.<sup>12</sup> Commenting on these, Morgan writes:

I shall comment here on only three of these goals, the three upon which all of the others largely depend.

First, an adequate professional salary for all members. (An average of \$4,000 and a top salary of \$8,000.)

Second, an active democratic local association in every community. Most local associations are still relatively ineffective—here is the area to which we must give our best thought and most vigorous effort.

Third, unified dues, a single membership fee covering local, state, national, and world service *collected by the local*. This is the hard core of the Centennial Action Program.

<sup>12</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 3-4.



*The American Federation of Teachers*

The AFT has been in existence for thirty-six years. From 1916 to 1920 the federation grew very rapidly, from 1921 to 1926 it declined rapidly in the face of determined and vigorous opposition, during the period 1927 to 1933 the federation gradually recovered from its decline, and in 1934 it began to grow rapidly again. From 1944 to 1952 the AFT grew from 22,000 members to nearly 44,000 paid members.<sup>13</sup>

Prior to 1916 a number of local groups of teachers in various parts of the country had become locals of the American Federation of Labor because these groups could not get satisfactory answers to their inquiries from hostile school officials. Three of these groups were located in Chicago, where autocratic rule of the schools had made it impossible for teachers to be heard. Finding themselves quite unable to get any hearing through existing teacher groups, these somewhat bitter teachers enlisted the support of labor to achieve their purposes. In spite of the fact that the board of education in Chicago outlawed teachers' unions, the labor-affiliated groups were successful in getting an injunction against the enforcement of the board of education decree. Under the protection of this injunction, the teachers' unions fought to be heard, and won.<sup>14</sup>

Flushed with success against the most bitter of opposition, and enthusiastic over the fact that the unions had been able to do what the other teachers' organizations had been unable to do, these teachers called a convention and organized the AFT under the date of May 9, 1916.

Because of the continued success of teachers' unions organized under the AFT as measured in terms of achievement of better salaries, more tenure, better sick leaves, and additional improvements in fringe benefits, few boards of education looked upon the teachers' unions with friendly eyes. Most boards were openly hostile. State, county, and local administrators were forced by boards of education into positions of opposition by the threat of dismissal or release from office. Schools of education became fearful of discussing teachers' unions because they feared inability to place teachers if they supported them. The United States Chamber of Commerce openly opposed teachers' unions. Newspapers blasted them; men like Strayer, Coffman, and Judd pleaded with teachers to refrain from joining teachers' unions; and manufacturers everywhere lent loud and enthusiastic support to teachers' organizations which openly opposed affiliation with organized labor.

As a result, locals began to melt away; teachers in teachers' unions were fired; whole groups of teachers were promised increases in salary if they would refrain from joining teachers' unions. By 1926 only a few

<sup>13</sup> I. R. Kuenzli, *The Union in Action in 1952*, AFT, Chicago, 1952.

<sup>14</sup> T. G. Stecker, *Early History of the American Federation of Teachers*, AFT, Chicago, 1928.



teachers' unions were left, and these were located in Chicago, New York City, Washington, D.C., St. Paul, Minneapolis, Atlanta, Memphis, Sacramento, and San Francisco.

The whole history of the teachers' union movement has revolved around militant protests by teachers against unfair, undemocratic, unjust, rotten practices in the administration of public education.

#### THE PLATFORM OF THE AFT

- I. A program for education.
  - A. The American education system must be democratic in its organization and practices.
  - B. The schools and the community should develop an interacting relationship of mutual value.
  - C. The curriculum must be carefully organized to embody the important objectives for which American democracy is striving.
  - D. Teacher education must occupy a place of foremost importance in an expanded educational program.
  - E. Personnel policies should be improved in order to strengthen the educational profession and build a stronger morale among teachers.
  - F. A planned building and reequipment program must be undertaken.
  - G. The organization of school programs should be designed to extend educational advantages to increasing numbers of American youth.
  - H. Reorganization of school administrative and attendance units is imperative for efficiency and progress.
  - I. An educational program of financial support, including Federal aid, is essential.
  - J. An educational program which will strengthen rural life is necessary.
  - K. Heightened public interest in education must be translated into permanent support for the public schools.
  - L. The schools must help close the gap between scientific advance and social retardation.
  - M. The schools must prepare individuals to create and live effectively in a cooperative, interdependent society.
  - N. The schools must extend the interest and concern of people in international cooperation and the maintenance of a just and durable peace.
  - O. The schools must help in securing acceptance of the ideals of democracy in social, economic, and political arrangements.
  - P. The schools must develop values which will serve to guide the individual toward high standards of moral conduct and ethical living.<sup>15</sup>
- II. Teachers have certain rights and responsibilities.
  - A. Teachers must be free to teach the truth and have personal freedom to lead their lives as citizens of the United States.
  - B. Teachers should have freedom to join organizations of their own choosing and should not be compelled to join nonunion organizations.

<sup>15</sup> *Goals for American Education*, The Commission of Educational Construction of the American Federation of Teachers, Chaps. II and V, pp. 9-18, 59-119, Chicago, 1948.



- G. Teachers should have the right of collective bargaining and adequate machinery for settling grievances.
  - D. Teachers should have salaries which are commensurate with their costly training and their service to the community and to the nation.
  - E. Teachers should live and work in an atmosphere of democracy.
  - F. All affiliated local and state bodies should make a careful study of the needs and practices of their local and state school systems.
  - G. Teachers should see that the cause of labor is fairly taught in the schools.
  - H. Teachers should investigate carefully education-industry days to make sure that such days are not used as a camouflaged attempt to attack the cause of organized labor.<sup>16</sup>
  - I. No teacher whose political actions are subject to totalitarian control shall be admitted to membership, and any teacher found to be engaged in such political action shall not be defended by the AFT.<sup>17</sup>
  - J. Teachers should have tenure as long as they are efficient teachers.
  - K. Teachers should be protected by sound retirement laws.
  - L. Teachers should seek to develop the curricula in schools to the end that they will meet the needs of children.
  - M. Teachers should oppose all attempts to curtail the educational opportunities of children.
  - N. Teachers should seek more and better democratizing of the schools so that children will be better equipped to assume their roles in the industrial, social, and political life of the community, state, and nation.
  - O. Teachers should determine the standards for those who are to be members of the profession of teachers.
  - P. Teachers should assume responsibilities incident to participation in school administration.<sup>18</sup>
- III. Financial support of education.
- A. Federal aid to education should be enacted by the Congress of the United States<sup>19</sup>
    - 1. To provide aid expressly for public school teachers' salaries.
    - 2. To provide aid for the construction of public school buildings.
    - 3. To provide aid through scholarships for needy, worthy students.
    - 4. To provide a program for eradicating adult illiteracy.
    - 5. To provide services to protect and promote the health and welfare of every child in the United States.
  - B. The present system of school-district organization is confused, wasteful, and inefficient. The AFT supports the work of the National Commission on School-district Reorganization.

<sup>16</sup> *Labor and Education in 1951: Report of the Executive Council of the American Federation of Teachers and the Annual Convention of the American Federation of Labor on Education in 1951*, pp. 15-16, AFT, Chicago, January, 1952.

<sup>17</sup> "Resolutions of the 35th Annual Convention, AFT," *The American Teacher*, p. 20, October, 1952.

<sup>18</sup> *Questions and Answers about the American Federation of Teachers*, AFT, Chicago, 1952.

<sup>19</sup> *Labor and Education in 1951*, *op. cit.*, p. 10.



- C. Both local and state funds for school purposes should be increased.
- D. The burden of taxation for schools now comes, locally, from local property taxes. Increased support for schools should be provided by the states from taxes coming from sources other than levies against property.<sup>20</sup>

#### IV. Personnel policies.

- A. Only those who show promise of being good teachers should be allowed to become members of the teaching profession. Teachers should be selected entirely on the basis of merit.
- B. Sex, marital status, religious affiliation should never be factors in the selection of teachers.
- C. Teacher rating should not be used as a device to determine salaries of teachers.
- D. All school systems should have sick leave cumulative to at least thirty days.
- E. All teachers should be covered by retirement plans that are actuarially sound.
- F. Upon completion of a satisfactory probationary period, teachers should be placed upon permanent tenure, subject to dismissal for incompetence and improper conduct only after due notice and proper hearing.
- G. Teachers should participate in the formulation of personnel policies.<sup>21</sup>
- H. Teachers who are members of the Communist Party or any other totalitarian organization should not be employed in the schools, but any teacher who is accused of being a member of the Communist Party or any other totalitarian organization should have every opportunity to clear himself. The AFT assumes that a teacher, like any other citizen, is innocent until proved guilty in the courts.
- I. The AFT vigorously opposes establishment of state and local textbook-screening committees outside established local educational control.
- J. The teacher should not be held financially responsible for the safety of students while under his jurisdiction as a teacher.<sup>22</sup>

#### V. Educational trends.

- A. The AFT favors and supports better television programs for children and television programs for public discussion of important educational questions.
- B. The AFT advises locals to organize intensive campaigns to educate the public on the quality of teaching done today and the importance of such teaching to a democratic society.
- C. The AFT is on record to alert the public to insidious groups and individuals who are attempting to undermine our public school program.
- D. The AFT encourages all citizens, including teachers, to exercise their

<sup>20</sup> Items B to D from *Goals for American Education*, *op. cit.*, pp. 49, 52, 105-114.

<sup>21</sup> Items A to G from *Ibid.*, pp. 85-93.

<sup>22</sup> Items I and J from "Resolutions of the 35th Annual Convention, AFT," *op. cit.*, pp. 19-20.



civil rights and responsibilities to the full extent of their abilities in vigorous participation in the governmental and civic activities of the local communities, the states, and the nation.<sup>23</sup>

#### VI. Teacher strikes.

- A. The AFT does not assert (and hereby expressly disclaims) the right to strike against the government of the United States or any agency thereof.
- B. The use of the strike is rejected as an instrument of policy of the AFT. The executive council and its national officers will not call a strike either nationally or in any local area of jurisdiction, nor in any way advise a local to strike. The funds and facilities of the national organization will not be used to support a strike.
- C. The facilities of the national office are available to all locals for the negotiation, adjustment, mediation, and redress of problems and grievances.
- D. Locals should be instructed in the dangers and problems of the strike and of the national policy with respect thereto.
- E. When it appears that a local may be involved in a strike situation, the area vice president, secretary-treasurer, and other national officers and employees whose services may be available will make every effort to adjust the grievances and avoid the strike. If any strike is called, it must be made very clear that the national officers have taken no part in the decision to call the strike. However, the existence of the strike or work stoppage will not terminate the efforts of the national officers to adjust the grievances and affect the resumption of the educational process. In any such situation it will be the aim of the national officers to promote the education of the children by eliminating the causes that have led to interruption of classes.
- F. It will be the duty of the president of any local involved in an issue or grievance that might possibly culminate in a strike to inform the national office in detail concerning the entire problem and to file a full report to the executive council.
- G. None of the expenses incurred by a local in connection with a strike shall be paid out of the treasury of the AFT.<sup>24</sup>

*Membership in the AFT.* Article III of the Constitution and bylaws of the AFT contains eleven sections, as follows:<sup>25</sup>

Section 1. This organization shall consist of associations of public school teachers and of other educational workers organized in conformity with the provisions of this constitution.

<sup>23</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 21.

<sup>24</sup> Items A to G have been taken directly from a statement prepared by John Ligtenberg, attorney for the AFT, and approved by the executive council of the AFT, December, 1951. Reported in *The Union in Action in 1952*, pp. 31-32, AFT, Chicago, 1952.

<sup>25</sup> The eleven articles have been quoted directly from the Constitution of the American Federation of Teachers, correct as of January 1, 1952, AFT, Chicago.



Section 2. The organization may admit to membership associations of public school principals, assistants to principals, heads of departments, or other supervising officers, except superintendents, provided:

- a. That there shall have been established in the same jurisdiction, city, town, township, or county, a union or unions of public school classroom teachers for a period of six months.
- b. That the union or unions of classroom teachers thus existing shall by a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting at a meeting of the local or at meetings of the locals especially called and publicly announced for the purpose agree to recommend the granting of a charter to those applying under this section.

Section 3. Classroom teachers with supervisory authority may be admitted to membership by any local whose constitution permits at any meeting held after such local has been in existence six months, provided nature of such proposed action shall have been included in the call for the meeting. Such action must be taken by a two-thirds vote.

Section 4. Classroom teachers with supervisory authority in rural communities or in cities with less than fifteen principals may be admitted to membership by a local in such community or city by a majority vote.

Section 5. Any teacher residing outside the jurisdiction of an established local may be accepted as a member of the nearest local of his grade.

Section 6. In school districts or jurisdictions where there are no locals of the AFT, membership-at-large may be granted individual teachers upon recommendation of the area vice president and vote of the executive council. Membership-at-large may be maintained until there is chartered in the area a local in which the member-at-large would be eligible for membership.

But in a state where a state federation of teachers has been chartered, the granting of the membership-at-large in the AFT shall be approved by the state federation and the area vice president. All members-at-large within the state shall be affiliated with the state federation at a rate to be determined by the state federation. Revocation of membership-at-large shall be made by a majority vote of the executive council.

Section 7. The executive council may exercise its discretion in the chartering of groups of teachers in educational institutions not supported by public funds, provided that such institutions are not conducted primarily for religious purposes.

Section 8. Locals which have been organized for at least one year may admit to membership principals or other supervisory officers, except superintendents, by a three-fourths majority of the members present and voting at a meeting especially called and publicly announced for that purpose.

Section 9. In a place where no union of teachers exists, an association of teachers which includes in its membership principals and other supervisory officers, except superintendents, may be admitted to membership in this organization, if in the judgment of the executive council the purposes of the AFT would be advanced thereby.

Section 10. Where a local of the AFT exists in or near a college or university having a department of education, that local may accept prospective teach-



ers as associate members. Annual dues of \$1.25 shall be paid directly to the secretary-treasurer by the local for each associate member to provide a subscription to *The American Teacher*. Associate members shall have only visitors' privileges at the convention.

Section 11. No discrimination shall ever be shown toward individual members because of race, religious faith, or political activities or beliefs, except that no applicant whose political actions are subject to totalitarian control such as fascist, nazi, or communist shall be admitted to membership.

NOTE: Art. IV, Sec. 2 defines the word "teacher" as follows: "The word 'teacher' shall mean any public school teacher who has classroom work, and who does not have disciplinary power or rating power over other teachers."

*State federation of teachers.* If there are five locals of the AFT in any one state, a state federation of teachers may be organized. Charters may be granted to such state federation by a majority vote of the executive council provided that the application for such charter is accompanied by the usual charter fee of \$10. No dues are assessed against the state federation by the national organization except for members-at-large as provided in Art. III of the constitution.

State federations have the right to send one delegate to the national convention, but such a delegate is denied the right to vote in the annual convention.<sup>26</sup>

*Local units of the AFT.* Any group of seven or more public school teachers, upon application to the executive council and the payment of a fee of \$10, may be granted a charter. Similarly, a charter may be issued to an association of seven or more teachers in educational institutions not supported by public funds, *provided that such institutions are not conducted for religious purposes.*

Each affiliated local is entitled to elect delegates to the national convention according to the following plan:

One delegate may be elected by each local having a membership of 25; for each additional 25 members up to 500, one additional delegate may be elected; beyond 500 members, one delegate for each 50 up to 1,000; and beyond 1,000, one for each 100 members.

At the national convention, each local is entitled to as many votes as the number of delegates allowed it, even though all the delegates are not present. Written proxies are required.

The dues assessed against members in the locals vary from 10 cents per month to 65 cents per month, on a graduated scale depending upon the salary of the teacher. The assessment for a teacher whose salary is only \$1,000 per year is 10 cents per month, or \$1.20 per year. With each additional \$500 salary, the dues increase 5 cents per month up to 65

<sup>26</sup> Constitution of the AFT, 1952.



cents for those whose salary exceeds \$6,000 per year. The maximum assessment is, therefore, \$7.80 per year. Payment of dues entitles the member to the magazine *The American Teacher*.

*The executive council of AFT.* The executive council is composed of the president, secretary-treasurer, and the fifteen vice presidents elected by the delegates from the locals at the annual convention. The secretary-treasurer is the only member of the executive council who serves for more than one year; he is elected by the president and the vice presidents to serve at the pleasure of the federation.

The executive council is required to obey the instructions of the national convention, except that the executive council has the power to revise expenditures in conformity to available income, even though such action may change budgeted amounts.

The executive council initiates referenda upon request of the majority of the council or upon written request of one-tenth of the membership of the locals. It scrutinizes proposed legislation affecting the interests of schools and of teachers, and whenever it deems wise, whenever it is instructed to do so by the annual convention, or whenever it is instructed to do so as a result of a referendum, it initiates legislation.

The secretary-treasurer may be removed from office in any one of four ways:

1. By a two-thirds vote of the executive council.
2. By a majority vote of the executive council approved by a majority vote at the annual convention (with six-months' notice).
3. By a two-thirds vote of the annual convention (with six-months' notice) or
4. By a two-thirds vote of both the council and the convention without notice.

### *Committees of the AFT*

1. The Committee on Convention Program is appointed by the executive council following an expression by delegates at the convention on "choice cards."
2. There is no nominating committee; all nominations are made from the floor of the convention.
3. The following standing committees function at conventions:
  - a. Committee on credentials.
  - b. Legislation.
  - c. Civil and professional rights of teachers.
  - d. Educational trends and policies.
  - e. Working conditions.
  - f. Social and economic trends.
  - g. Democratic human relations.
  - h. Union techniques.
  - i. International relations.
  - j. Resolutions.



These committees function as groups to present to the delegates, at their annual convention, resolutions which, if enacted by the legislative body, become the policies of the federation.

*IFFTU.* The AFT has taken steps to perfect an international organization of nation-wide teachers' organizations and to establish an international organization of free teachers' unions. This organization, known as the International Federation of Free Teachers' Unions, has representative units in Japan, Italy, Germany, Israel, Finland, Belgium, Tunisia, Ireland, and the United States.<sup>27</sup>

The IFFTU held its first meeting in Paris, France, on August 6 and 7, 1951, with delegates from Germany, France, Switzerland, Belgium, Spanish teachers-in-exile, and the United States.

From July 14 to 20, 1952, the IFFTU met again in Paris with fifty-five union teachers attending from Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. The conference adopted a strong resolution in favor of the right of teachers to organize and bargain collectively. A special feature of the conference was a series of workshops in which teachers from the countries involved gathered together to discuss mutual problems. This organization is in its infancy and hence has not yet accomplished much. Future plans call for careful study of teachers' union problems in every nation of the world in which such study can be developed.

The AFT supports the program of UNESCO and in its 1952 convention adopted a resolution directing the federation to appoint a regular delegate to the IFFTU and to advise the executive council to study the problems of teachers' unions in other countries.<sup>28</sup>

### *Other Teachers' Organizations*

*The Association for Childhood Education.* The Association for Childhood Education, International, sometimes referred to as ACE, is an important organization for teachers.<sup>29</sup> Its purposes are as follows:

1. To work for the education and well-being of children.
2. To promote desirable conditions, programs, and practices in the schools, nursery through elementary.
3. To raise the standard of preparation and to encourage continued professional growth of teachers and leaders in the field.
4. To bring into active cooperation all groups concerned with children in the school, the home, and the community.
5. To inform the public of the needs of children and how the school program must be adjusted to fit those needs.

<sup>27</sup> *The Union in Action in 1952*, op. cit., pp. 54-60.

<sup>28</sup> "Report of the Committee on International Relations," *The American Teacher*, pp. 27-28, October, 1952.

<sup>29</sup> Yearbook, 1952, The Association for Childhood Education, International, Washington.



6. To develop a dynamic philosophy which is responsive to human needs in a changing society.

Any local, sectional, or student group, or organization of the United States or other country, whose activities are in harmony with the purposes of the ACE, is eligible for membership as a local branch of the association. Local branches are required to pay dues on the basis of 50 cents for each member enrolled. The local branch is entitled to one voting representative for each twenty members. The ACE holds membership in the Alliance for Guidance of Rural Youth, American Council on Education, Association for Arts in Childhood, Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, Educational Press Association of America, National Committee on Parent Education, National Conference for Cooperation in School Health Education, National Council on Family Relations, Society for Research in Child Development, Women's Joint Congressional Committee, and Youth Conservation Clearing House.

The ACE set the following goals for 1952-1953:

1. Securing adequate school buildings for children.
2. Providing school experiences which will help children solve their problems.
3. Promote better teacher-education programs and better recruitment procedures.
4. Promote more parent-teacher planning of experiences of children.
5. Provide better playgrounds, libraries, radio programs, and television programs.
6. Encourage better world understanding.

In 1951 the ACE enrolled 67,803 branch members; 4,012 individual members not members of local branches; 17 staff members; 598 local branches; 36 state associations; and 3 national units. The association published an outstanding journal entitled *Childhood Education*.

Teachers in the elementary schools should be encouraged to form local branches of the ACE because of the unusually high professional character of the organization. The ACE is one of the few teachers' organizations which has as its chief purpose the encouragement of teachers to grow in service. In contrast to the NEA or the AFT, the ACE is devoted almost entirely to the job of improvement of the teaching-learning situation rather than to securing benefits for teachers. While the ACE recognizes teacher welfare as an essential aspect of improvement of the teaching-learning situation, it is far more concerned with the welfare of children than with the rights of teachers. Here is a professional organization which deserves far more support from the teaching profession than it is presently receiving.<sup>30</sup>

<sup>30</sup> Full details concerning the ACE, its program, its purposes, its publications, and its organizational plan can be secured from the Association for Childhood Education, International Headquarters, Washington.



Teachers should be aware of the action program of the ACE for 1953 to 1955.<sup>31</sup>

1. Seek to enlarge the understandings of parents, teachers, neighbors, and others of the great importance of all these groups of people in the total development of children.
2. Seek more adequate school facilities for nursery schools, kindergartens, primary grades, and intermediate grades.
3. Seek to provide experiences which will engender growth of children in the areas of physical and mental health; acquisition of skills basic to problem solving, experimentation, and investigation; assumption of responsibilities; and understanding others.
4. Seek to provide more adequate materials of instruction so that children may learn more effectively.
5. Encourage voluntary organizations in communities to become more active in their concern for growth of children, people in general, teachers, parents, and others.
6. Seek to provide a permanent headquarters building where study, discussion, and experimentation can be carried on.<sup>32</sup>

*Progressive Education Association.* In 1919 the Progressive Education Association was organized. Later the name of the organization was changed to the American Education Fellowship. A serious division occurred among members. Within the past year the larger segment of this division who were not interested in propagandizing but who were primarily interested in the improvement of public education in the United States succeeded in rewriting the purposes and changing the name of the organization. Therefore, the organization is again known as the Progressive Education Association.

The Progressive Education Association has frequently been the subject of criticism by educational workers and laymen alike. Usually this criticism has been based upon prejudice which could be defined as "being down on something one is not up on." In spite of the fact that men like Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Ebbinghaus long ago found conclusive evidence to show that mere recall was not an adequate test of learning, the chief stress in many school and college classrooms is still laid upon the process of mental absorption. Teachers, in the main, still rate the excellence of learning and the excellence of teaching by the ratio between the amount of information imparted by the teacher to the amount disgorged by the learner.

The Progressive Education Association believes that subject matter in schools should be organized about units which are meaningful to the learner, that motivation is the central problem in learning, and therefore

<sup>31</sup> Supplement to the ACE Branch Exchange, 1953. By permission of Francis Hamilton, executive secretary, ACE, Washington (May 4, 1953).

<sup>32</sup> Yearbook, 1952, *op. cit.*, pp. 5-8.



that it is more important to develop a desire to learn than it is to impose subject matter and to require docility and receptivity. Similarly, the Association believes that school subjects per se do not educate; that attitudes outweigh accumulation of information; that while facts are essential to understanding, the real purpose of education is not recall of facts but understanding of the significance of facts; that rules and regulations should be the result of mutual acceptance of them as the outgrowth of the moving spirit of the group; that it is a mistake to assume that mere acquisition of subject matter constitutes an education; and that children learn when they react to a situation and that they learn in the direction of that reaction. The membership of the Progressive Education Association generally agrees that today is different from yesterday and that what was apparently educative for people yesterday is not necessarily so today, that appreciation of the significance of information is the mark of an educated mind.

Freedom, to the progressive teacher, is a form of control rather than absence of it. Freedom exists in proportion to the maturity of the individual and in proportion to the ability of the individual to foresee consequences. Hence, the child is not looked upon as a bad little man or as a good little man, but is recognized as a human organism in an immature state who has the potentialities of becoming a man, good or bad, depending upon the environment in which he is placed and upon the nature of his experience. Discipline, then, is organization of behavior patterns as a result of the thinking of the members of the group, including pupils as well as the teacher.

To the typical progressive educator, cooperation is an essential of educational experience. It starts with compulsion with the very immature and evolves through leadership into democratic cooperation as the learner becomes increasingly able to foresee consequences.

The Progressive Education Association is a professional organization which enlists its membership from those who are eager and willing to pioneer and experiment for the purpose of improving educational practice. No teacher who wants to be left alone, who desires to continue in his present ways of doing things, who refuses to look objectively upon new developments in method would be much interested in the activities of the Progressive Education Association. On the other hand, teachers who are eager to explore new approaches to the problems of teachers would be interested in and would be welcome in the Association.

*Credit unions.* Credit unions are organizations which meet a real need of many teachers. If every teacher had the financial reserve to carry him over the emergency periods, there would be little need for credit unions. A credit union is a cooperative savings and loan association specifically organized to serve the needs of teachers. A group of teachers employed



in a school system organize for the purpose of saving money and making their combined savings available to the service of all teachers by loaning teachers money. Usually such credit unions sell shares of stock to teachers and restrict credit to those who own shares.

The first credit union for teachers was organized over forty years ago in New Hampshire. Today Federal law, enacted in 1934, makes it possible to organize credit unions in every state. In 1947 the NEA reported that within its affiliates there were nearly two hundred state-chartered credit unions among teachers and that loans amounted to more than \$8 million.

Many teachers need credit unions to enable them to meet emergencies of all kinds—credit to pay for hospital bills, to meet family emergencies, to enable them to take extension courses, to attend summer school, and for many similar or related purposes. Some people have raised the question: Why a credit union? Why not use the banks? Actually, the small-loan business is not sought by many banks at rates of interest which are attractive to teachers. As a result, small-loan companies have developed which are permitted by law to charge very high rates of interest. The usual interest rate charged by credit unions is about one-third that of the small-loan company.

Teachers who do not have the services of their own credit union could get such a credit union started by taking the following steps:

1. Find a few key teachers who are interested in a teachers' credit union, and secure from the NEA, the AFT, or other sources the bulletins available on credit unions.
2. After the few key people have thoroughly familiarized themselves with the details concerning a credit union, call a meeting of teachers for the purpose of presenting to them the idea of having a credit union. Discuss the question thoroughly, utilizing the knowledge of all those who have informed themselves about such credit unions.
3. Get an informal reaction to the idea of establishing a credit union, and if the reaction is favorable, vote to submit to the organized teachers, in their meeting, the proposal to establish a credit union.
4. If the association of teachers is also favorable to the idea, invite a speaker who has had experience with credit unions and who is well informed to explain the details. (Such speakers can be secured from state teachers' associations, the NEA, or the AFT.)
5. Have teachers prepare a mimeographed bulletin to explain to teachers the facts concerning a credit union.
6. Secure from the Credit Union National Association, or from some equally reliable source, a second speaker to discuss the question further at a meeting of all teachers interested.
7. Call a special meeting of all interested teachers to decide on the question: Shall we apply for a charter?



8. If the group votes to apply for a charter, prepare a bulletin of the question and answer type and send to all teachers.
9. Call another meeting for the purpose of nominating a board of directors, a credit committee, and an auditing committee.
10. About thirty days later, hold an organization meeting, and elect a board of directors, a credit committee, and an auditing committee.
11. Arrange for a meeting of the board of directors to elect a president, treasurer, secretary, and other officers. At this meeting the board of directors should determine, also,
  - a. The amount of bond required of the treasurer.
  - b. The bank to be selected as a depository.
  - c. The maximum number of shares any one teacher could purchase.
  - d. The maximum size of loan, secured and unsecured.
  - e. The interest rate.
  - f. The price per share.
  - g. How needed supplies are to be purchased.
  - h. The office hours of the treasurer.
  - i. The nature of fines for failure to repay on time.
  - j. Plans to publicize the credit union among teachers.
  - k. When to begin business.
  - l. Who should be the financial adviser.
12. After shares have been sold in sufficient numbers to provide money for loans, begin to loan money.

The credit-union section of the Federal government, now a part of the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation, publishes a very valuable booklet entitled *Suggestions for Educational Committee* which outlines in detail the best procedures. Local credit unions will find it essential to have this bulletin and to affiliate with state leagues of credit unions or with the Credit Union National Association. The cost of such affiliation is small in comparison to the improved procedures which are likely to result.

*CIO teacher organizations.* At the present time there are no teachers' unions affiliated with the Congress of Industrial Organizations. In 1946 the United Federal Workers of America merged with the State, County, and Municipal Workers of America. This merger, known as the United Public Workers of America, had a national teacher division which was concerned with the formation of local unions of teachers in school systems. In 1949 the group claimed a relatively small enrollment of teachers. Just prior to January, 1950, however, the United Public Workers of America was expelled by the CIO because of alleged subversive activity of some of its members. At the present time a new unit is in the process of organization. The new unit is known as Government and Civic Workers.<sup>33</sup> While there may be, in the future, a significant number of teachers in unions affiliated with the CIO, at this writing the number is so small that it is almost insignificant.

<sup>33</sup> Milton Murray, secretary, Government and Civic Workers, CIO, Washington.



### *Other Important Teachers' Organizations*

There are many other organizations which should be known to teachers. A few leading ones are listed here. (For a full list see *Education Directory, Educational Association, Part 4*, 1949-1950, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Washington.)

1. American Association for Adult Education, Cleveland, Ohio.
2. American Association of Physics Teachers, Minneapolis, Minn.
3. American Camping Association, Chicago, Ill.
4. American Council on Education, Washington, D.C.
5. American Nurses Association, New York, N.Y.
6. Association of School Business Officials, A. A. Knoll, Long Beach, Calif.
7. Association of Social Science Teachers, Lincoln University, Jefferson City, Mo.
8. Child Study Association of America, New York, N.Y.
9. Mathematical Association of America, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
10. Modern Language Association of America, New York, N.Y.
11. National Association for Nursery Education, Chicago, Ill.
12. National Association of Biology Teachers, Nedland, Mich.
13. National Business Teachers Association, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
14. National Citizens Commission for Public Schools, New York, N.Y.
15. National Council of Teachers of English, Chicago, Ill.
16. National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, New York, N.Y.
17. National Kindergarten Association, New York, N.Y.
18. National Recreation Association, New York, N.Y.
19. Phi Delta Kappa, Homewood, Ill.
20. School Public Relations Association, Cincinnati, Ohio

### *Associations Antagonistic to Public Education*

There are two sorts of critics of public education: those who are honest critics, and those who are actually opposed to public education and who organize "front organizations" to do their work. It is often difficult to distinguish the two types. Teachers should be very cautious of accusing citizens of being members of front organizations simply because such citizens attack certain procedures or points of view in the schools. Many of the objectors are honest and sincere; many are in no way connected with the subversive groups. Still others have unwittingly been drawn into a front organization without being aware of it. Teachers, therefore, should know that the following groups have been labeled as enemies of public education so that as teachers they can avoid two errors: first, of becoming aligned with them, and second, of accusing citizens of being members when they are not. Furthermore, every teacher should be able to help



citizens in avoiding membership in these organizations which are opposed to free public education and which are, in reality, front organizations seeking to undermine free public education. Melby<sup>34</sup> lists the following among such organizations:

1. National Association of Pro-America, Seattle, Wash.
2. National Council for American Education, Allen A. Zoll, executive vice president (not to be confused with the American Council on Education).
3. Guardians of American Education, Inc., New York, Major A. G. Rudd, national chairman.
4. Friends of the Public Schools of America, Washington, D.C., Major General A. Fries, editor; Mrs. C. I. Palmer, president.
5. Institute for Public Services, New York, N.Y., William A. Allan, director.
6. Employees Association of Chicago, John T. Beatty, president.
7. Conference of American Small Business Organizations, New York, N.Y., Lucille C. Crain, secretary and editor (publishes *Educational Reviewer*).
8. Church League of America, Chicago, Ill., George W. Robnett, executive secretary (publishes *News and Views*).
9. American Education Association, New York, N.Y., Milo F. McDonald, executive director (publishes *Sign Posts*; not to be confused with National Education Association).

## SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Why is it that in many large cities a rather large number of teachers refuse to join the NEA but are willing to join the state association?
2. What platform of both the NEA and the AFT is opposed by a large segment of the teachers in some localities?
3. Do many teachers in your school refuse to belong to the state teachers' association? Why? The NEA? Why? The AFT? Why?
4. Why is it necessary every year to convince teachers that they should join the NEA? The state association?
5. Can you tell the difference between a teacher who is a member of the NEA and one who is not? What are the differences (observable)?
6. Does your school have a teachers' credit union? How is it working? Or if not, would such a credit union help teachers?
7. Evaluate your state teachers' association. Show its strengths and weaknesses.
8. Evaluate the local organization of teachers in your school. Describe how it functions and point out its strengths and weaknesses.

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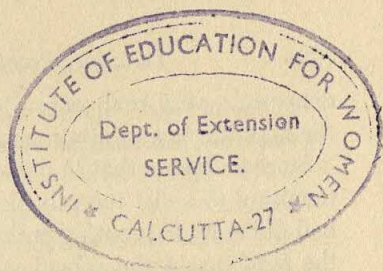
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<sup>34</sup> E. O. Melby, *American Education under Fire*, Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, New York, 1951.



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## CHAPTER 17 *Teacher Activity in Organizations*

Teachers are being challenged today, more than they have ever been, to weld themselves into truly professional groups. This challenge is coming from two sources: from the general public and from teachers themselves.

The taxpaying public is becoming somewhat irritated with teachers' organizations which continuously make appeals for increased salaries, better tenure laws, broader programs for sabbatical leaves, more extensive sick leave with pay, and more favorable retirement laws, but which show little evidence of being overtly active in assuming the responsibility for improving teachers in service. The general public is becoming a bit cynical about such topics as "teacher ethics" because people seldom learn of any efforts made by teachers' organizations to enforce their codes. The public is looking for signs indicating that teachers' organizations are taking positive action to require their own membership to take specific steps toward improvement of teachers in service. The public is wary of teachers' organizations which demand rights but which ignore responsibility.

Teachers' organizations make little effort to set standards for membership. The job of setting standards for teachers has been left almost exclusively to the agencies of the people, such as boards of education, legislatures, and state departments of education. The public cannot understand why those who have banded together to protect their rights as teachers do not show more visible signs of really establishing standards for themselves.

The public is gradually becoming aware of the fact that an incompetent substitute teacher can, by doing nothing more than paying the required dues, become an accepted member of the local teachers' association, a member of the state teachers' association, a member of the NEA, or a member of almost every department of the NEA. The public is likewise becoming aware of the fact that such a teacher could become an active member of a teachers' union affiliated with the AFT.

In Scarsdale, N.Y., the citizens successfully organized to meet attacks upon the schools. But it is important to note that "The community confi-



dence in a very real sense did not rest on its acknowledged respect for the high ideals and attainment of its staff, but rather on its self-respect."<sup>1</sup>

Storen<sup>2</sup> reports that in one community the work of a lay committee attempting to assist the schools in combating attacks on public education had difficulty in securing enthusiastic help from teachers because many of the teachers in the school were traditional in their outlooks and were not willing or able to make the necessary adjustments.

The inquiry made by the National Research Center<sup>3</sup> revealed that 44 per cent of those who suggested changes in education wanted to see changes in the curriculum and in teaching methods. Ten per cent stressed the need for *better-qualified and better-trained teachers*.

The public cannot be expected to regard teachers as truly professional workers until the teachers themselves take steps to professionalize their own organizations. Standards of quality must be established by teachers as well as by law and by rules of boards of education. Teachers have this responsibility if they are to ask for rights. Teachers, through their organizations, should demand that individual teachers fulfill their obligations. At the same time the organizations should throw their whole weight behind individual teachers whose efforts to improve as teachers are endangered or challenged without justification.

To do this, teachers themselves should have far more control over their own organizations than they do now. Teachers should have a positive voice in determining who is to be admitted to the profession, what the qualifications of a member should be, and who should be expelled from the professional organization.

Kuenzli, secretary-treasurer of the AFT, recently stated that the problem of top priority among teachers' organizations at the present time is to devise plans of action by which teachers' organizations can raise their own professional standards.<sup>4</sup>

The NEA believes that teacher improvement is of great concern at this time: "While all professional organizations have many functions, the basic one is to foster continuous and effective personal and professional growth of members. . . . No pre-service program of preparation, however excellent in quality, can ever produce the finished practitioner."<sup>5</sup>

Actually, some teachers have lacked sufficient loyalty to their calling and to each other to be willing to accept full professional responsibility. On the other hand, many teachers' organizations have been so lacking in

<sup>1</sup> A. B. Shaw, "Citizens Organize to Meet Attacks on the Schools," *Educational Leadership*, p. 304, February, 1952.

<sup>2</sup> Helen F. Storen, "The Role of the Laymen in Curriculum Planning," *Educational Leadership*, p. 276, February, 1952.

<sup>3</sup> *The Public Looks at Education*, National Opinion Research Center Report 21, p. 21, University of Denver, Denver, Colo., August, 1944.

<sup>4</sup> Letter to the author, November 25, 1952.

<sup>5</sup> *The Teacher and Professional Organizations*, p. 43, NEA, Washington, 1951.



organic structure that they have actually discouraged teachers in their desires to accept responsibility. When a teachers' organization, local, state, or national, is dominated or controlled by those who employ teachers, there is little likelihood that teachers will assume their share of responsibility. Similarly, if a teachers' organization is designed in such a way as to encourage direction of local activities by larger units located far off and separated in interests from those of the local unit, teachers are not likely to assume their full share of responsibility. When the NEA hands a "blueprint for the local unit" to the local unit, a basic principle of leadership is being violated. Those who have studied learning tell us that learning is not likely to take place unless the learner is engaged in activities which are related to his own goals. Similarly, teachers in local school systems are not likely to learn the techniques of becoming professional in their association unless the design for action has its beginnings in the local situation.

Leadership in teachers' organizations must emerge from the local situation if such organizations are to become truly professional. When a new teacher is employed in a school system, that teacher should discover, immediately, where he fits into the local unit. To meet this need requires a special effort of the local teachers' organization—it cannot be done effectively by a state or national organization of teachers. In existing teachers' organizations, the tendency is for leaders to see the problems of education primarily in terms of their own functional effort, and the present pattern of organization in the NEA has become so elaborated and cut up into departments and commissions that the function of the local unit has become insignificant to many teachers.

Whenever we find organizations which focus their attention upon district offices, state offices, and national headquarters, leadership tends to be focused at the top. Such organizations must be reconstructed and stripped down until every member is effectively tied to the whole operation. There is a great need in the NEA for intimate and personal stimulation at the local level. The NEA cannot become an effective professional organization until it places its emphasis upon reconstruction to permit and to encourage local units to play larger and more important roles in the determination of basic policies of the national organization.

### *Membership in Teachers' Organizations*

What percentage of teachers belong to teachers' unions? What percentage of teachers belong to the NEA or its affiliates? What percentage belong to no organization? These are questions frequently asked. While it is impossible to answer these questions accurately for any given month or year, a sampling by the NEA in 1952 yielded fair estimates.<sup>6</sup>

<sup>6</sup> *For Your Information*, NEA Research Division, Washington, May, 1952.



The research division of the NEA received replies from 1,615 cities concerning personnel practices in city school systems regarding membership in teachers' organizations and regarding collective bargaining. The inquirers found that in the schools sampled, 6 per cent of the teachers belonged to no teachers' organizations, 11 per cent belonged to teachers' unions, and 86 per cent belonged to NEA affiliates or to the NEA. Since the percentages total more than 100, it can be assumed that about 3 per cent belonged to both unions and NEA affiliates.

Membership in teachers' unions varies directly with the size of cities in the sample, and membership in NEA affiliates varies inversely with the size of cities. The larger the city, the greater percentage of teachers who belong to teachers' unions, and the smaller the percentage who belong to NEA affiliates. Apparently, when teachers have more personal contact with a larger percentage of people in the community, membership in teachers' unions tends to be smaller. The estimated number and per cent of classroom teachers belonging and not belonging to teachers' organizations, based upon the NEA research division study, is shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Teachers Belonging and Not Belonging to Teachers' Organizations

Cities	Esti- mated num- ber of teachers	Belonging to no organiza- tions		Belonging to unions		Belonging to NEA affiliates		Belonging to unions and NEA affiliates	
		Num- ber	Per cent	Num- ber	Per cent	Num- ber	Per cent	Num- ber	Per cent
Above 500,000 (I).....	93,963	11,726	12	22,551	24	54,498	58	5,638	6
100,000-499,999 (II)....	84,150	5,890	7	5,049	6	68,162	81	5,049	6
30,000- 99,999 (III)...	88,960	3,558	4	6,227	7	77,396	87	1,779	2
10,000- 29,999 (IV)....	105,185	4,207	4	2,104	2	97,823	93	1,051	1
5,000- 9,999 (V).....	71,921	2,158	3	719	1	69,044	96	*	*
2,500- 4,999 (VI)....	63,360	3,168	5	*	*	60,192	95	*	*
Total.....	507,539	30,257	6	36,650	7	427,115	84	13,517	3

\* Less than  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.

SOURCE: *For Your Information*, Table 3, p. 5, NEA Research Division, May, 1952.

It should be noted that about one out of four union members in the largest cities belong to both teachers' unions and to NEA affiliates; that in the group of cities over 100,000 but smaller than 500,000, all union members apparently belong to NEA affiliates also. This means that in the cities of 100,000 or more, as judged by the sampling, 27,600 teachers belong to teachers' unions, and 40 per cent of these union members also belong to affiliates of the NEA. In cities under 100,000 only 9,050 teachers belong to unions, and of these about 30 per cent belong to NEA affiliates as



well. Apparently it is an accomplished fact that public school teachers hold memberships in both groups—teachers' unions and NEA affiliates.

Many educational people believe that teachers' organizations should urge school systems to establish rules and regulations requiring teachers to be members of teachers' organizations. Some advocate that boards of education should state that membership in a teachers' organization is a prerequisite for employment. The superintendents in the sample were requested to indicate why, in their judgment, membership in a teachers' organization should not be a prerequisite to employment. Their answers appear in Table 8.

*Table 8. Reasons Assigned by Superintendents for Not Requiring Membership in Teachers' Organizations as a Prerequisite for Employment*

<i>Reason</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
The question has never been considered.....	58
As superintendent, I would not ask for it.....	53
The board would oppose it.....	24
It is illegal.....	12
The public would oppose it.....	11
Other reasons.....	0.5

SOURCE: *For Your Information*, NEA Research Division, May, 1952.

In the schools sampled, it appears that the majority of superintendents have never considered establishing membership in teachers' organizations as a requirement for employment because they are opposed to such a practice. It is equally significant to note that superintendents reported that only one out of four boards would oppose it and that only about one out of ten citizens would oppose it. The chief obstacle to requiring membership in teachers' organizations appears to be the opinions and attitudes of the superintendents themselves. If this is true, then no teachers' organizations controlled by superintendents or school administrators would ever advocate establishing membership in teachers' organizations as prerequisites to employment. If teachers desired such a practice, it would be necessary for them to act through such groups as the Department of Classroom Teachers of the NEA or through the AFT since superintendents cannot belong to either of these organizations.

In some school systems, boards of education have recognized teachers' organizations as collective bargaining agents. Such recognition has been given to teachers' unions and to affiliates of the NEA; in fact, much more recognition of this nature has been given to the latter group than to the former, although some critics of teachers' unions tend to ascribe collective bargaining strictly to unions. Table 9 is a summary of the procedures for recognizing teachers' organizations as collective bargaining agents.

Boards of education have recognized the NEA affiliates as collective bargaining agents fifteen times as often as they have recognized teachers'



Table 9. Recognition of Teachers' Organizations as Collective Bargaining Agents

Cities	Per cent recognizing teachers' unions	Per cent recognizing NEA affiliates	Total percentages
Over 500,000 (I).....	0.0	6.0	6
100,000-499,999 (II).....	2.5	15.5	18
30,000- 99,999 (III).....	2.2	25.8	28
10,000- 29,999 (IV).....	1.8	20.2	22
5,000- 9,999 (V).....	1.4	18.6	20
2,500- 4,999 (VI).....	0.0	13.0	13
Total.....	1.2	17.8	19

SOURCE: *For Your Information*, NEA Research Division, May, 1952.

unions as such agents. Since there are eleven times as many teachers in the NEA as in the teachers' unions, it appears that the NEA affiliates play the role of collective bargaining agents proportionally more often than do teachers' unions. This is important, because the general reaction among laymen and teachers alike is that teachers in unions are more likely to engage in collective bargaining than teachers who are affiliated with the NEA.

The superintendents in the sample were asked to indicate the reason why boards of education were frequently unwilling to recognize teachers' organizations as collective bargaining agents. Their replies appear in Table 10.

Table 10. Reasons for Not Employing Collective Bargaining Techniques

Cities	Per cent reporting not necessary	Per cent indicating public disapproval	Per cent indicating no precedent	Per cent saying it is illegal
Over 500,000.....	67	13	53	7
100,000-499,999.....	80	14	24	8
30,000- 99,999.....	88	15	16	10
10,000- 29,999.....	94	13	13	4
5,000- 9,999.....	97	13	9	1
2,500- 4,999.....	96	15	10	2
Total.....	94	14	12	4

SOURCE: *For Your Information*, NEA Research Division, May, 1952.

Apparently as schools find it increasingly necessary to consider collective bargaining as a means for establishing teachers' salaries, they assert that the practice is contrary to general practice relative to employment of



public servants. In spite of the fact that the percentage of public opposition remains relatively constant, the superintendents feel that they should oppose collective bargaining on the ground that it is contrary to practice—and this opposition becomes directly proportional to the need for it. Is collective bargaining opposed by superintendents of schools more than by the general public? It would appear from these data that the answer is "yes." Classroom teachers of the NEA and the AFT should take these data into account in developing their policies.

There are those who assert that the local unit should affiliate with the state teachers' association; others assert that the local unit should affiliate with the NEA; others assert that the local unit should affiliate with both the state teachers' association and the NEA. Another, but smaller, group believes the local unit should affiliate with the AFT. It is the position of the author that teachers themselves should have the right to select those groups with which to affiliate. They should have the right to refuse to affiliate with any organizations if they choose such a procedure.

Probably the majority of superintendents, principals, and teachers would refuse, at the present time, to affiliate with the AFT. Many of these people are suspicious of the AFT for the following reasons:

1. It is affiliated with the American Federation of Labor.
2. They believe that it employs such devices as the "strike" to enforce its demands.
3. They believe that the AFT is not "professional."
4. They believe that the AFT is concerned only with fringe benefits and higher salaries for teachers.
5. They fear that boards of education, who usually represent the point of view of management, will be opposed to affiliation with labor.
6. They have the notion that communists or other subversives are enthusiastic about unions.
7. They fear that teachers will be dominated by labor leaders.
8. They prefer to be "classed" with doctors, lawyers, and ministers rather than with laborers.
9. Since the AFT excludes superintendents of schools, the teachers feel that belonging to the AFT would be a divisive influence in the schools.
10. They believe that teachers should not tie themselves to any group, labor or otherwise.

On the other hand, those who are enthusiastic about membership in the AFT assert that there are some major reasons why teachers should not depend entirely upon such organizations as the state teachers' associations or the NEA. They give as their reasons the following:

1. Control of the state associations and of the NEA is in the hands of administrators and supervisors even though 85 per cent of the members are classroom teachers.



2. Most of the state teachers' associations are dominated by small cliques and do not have the support of their members.
3. The NEA and its affiliated departments are dominated by small groups of people, and as a result they do not have the unwavering support of their members.<sup>7</sup>
4. The NEA ignores its local associations, and many state teachers' associations do likewise.
5. The NEA, its affiliated departments, and state teachers' associations are too casually organized to compete with pressure groups in American life.
6. The NEA, its affiliates, and the state associations must rely upon their own strength; they cannot muster the support of other large, organized groups of citizens when it comes time to fight and fight hard.
7. Teachers, alone, have little influence in legislative halls or in Congress.
8. State teachers' associations and the NEA are primarily interested in increasing their memberships.
9. The state teachers' associations, the NEA, and the affiliates of the NEA are no more professional than are the unions affiliated with the AFT.
10. Many "strikes" are called by local units affiliated with the NEA or with state associations, but these organizations blame such activities on the AFT.

Axtelle, chairman of the department of history and philosophy of education, New York University, recognizing the conflicts aroused in the minds of teachers over the problem of affiliation with the AFT, wrote:

It may be feared, however, that the association with organized labor may have the effect of prejudicing teachers in favor of one element of society at the expense of others. It may be felt that since teachers are the servants of the entire community, it is important that they preserve a social neutrality and objectivity in their instruction. Affiliation with organized labor would doubtless create a bias toward organized labor. Teachers (they believe) should not emotionally or organizationally identify themselves with any special class or group in the community.

The problem of neutrality is not simple. Certainly when dealing with controversial matters, the teacher must help his students deal fairly and objectively with the contradictory claims put forth. In this sense, teachers should be fair, neutral, and objective.

However, teachers in a democracy cannot be neutral. They cannot be neutral in their respect for the dignity and preciousness of human personality. This respect for human beings must pervade their methods of teaching and their attitudes toward human situations.

They cannot be neutral in their respect for the effective methods of inquiry and criticism. They cannot be neutral in their respect for truth and reason. Hence they must be prepared to resist those social forces or influences which would restrict the scope of inquiry and reason.

<sup>7</sup> Willard Owens, executive secretary of the NEA, in his keynote address at the 1943 convention of the NEA at Indianapolis, Ind.



They cannot be neutral regarding the public and common interests and needs of their community, their nation, or world order.

American teachers are dedicated to the democratic ideal. Public schools were established precisely to promote that ideal. Hence, they cannot be neutral about anything relating to it.

Now affiliation with organized labor need in no way interfere with a teacher's fairness and objectivity in the conduct of controversy and inquiry.

Affiliation with organized labor gives teachers a security and protection in their roles as teachers—workers have desired the best possible education for their children—workers stand to gain more from democracy and to lose more from its loss than most groups in society. Organized labor is the first to suffer from dictatorship. Hence whatever one may think of organized labor, it must be recognized that it jealously champions democracy and as energetically fights all forms of dictatorship.

The net effect of affiliation with organized labor, therefore, is to ensure the independence and autonomy of free education as well as to give social support to it.<sup>8</sup>

The belief that the AFT is committed to the strike to enforce its demands is not based upon facts. In the first place, as was indicated in the previous chapter, the federation has a no-strike policy which has been interpreted to mean that local units strike on their own, if they strike. Furthermore, Schiff<sup>9</sup> found that from August, 1945, through December, 1950, sixty-two work stoppages or strikes of teachers occurred in the United States, that fourteen of these involved local teachers' organizations affiliated with the AFT, that thirteen involved local teachers' organizations affiliated with the CIO, and that thirty-five involved independent, non-union groups which were affiliated neither with the AFT nor the CIO. "In fact, almost 60 per cent of teachers' strikes were called by non-labor-affiliated teachers' groups."<sup>10</sup> Schiff made these interesting observations:

The teachers involved in strikes were not radicals or ill-advised leaders who had risen to power in the organizations. The author has reached the conclusion that teachers would never have struck except in desperation. The teachers of St. Paul, although they had been affiliated with the American Federation of Labor since 1918, waited over a quarter of a century to use the strike weapon.<sup>11</sup>

Dewey's study in 1953 resulted in essentially the same results as that made by Schiff. From January 1, 1946, to December 31, 1952, the investi-

<sup>8</sup> George Axtelle, *Teacher Organization and Democracy in School Administration*, AFT Commission on Educational Reconstruction, Chicago, 1942.

<sup>9</sup> Albert Schiff, *A Study and Evaluation of Teachers' Strikes in the United States*, Doctoral Dissertation, Wayne University, Detroit, Mich., 1951.

<sup>10</sup> Albert Schiff, "Teachers' Strikes in the United States," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 34(4):133 (January, 1953).

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 133-134.



gator found that thirty-one teachers' strikes had occurred and that about 70 per cent of the strikes were the result of action by teacher groups which were not affiliated with labor. Dewey also reported that instead of viewing strikes with alarm and accusing teachers of becoming pro-labor and antimanagement, the profession, boards of education, and the people should be alarmed at the conditions which drove teachers, in desperation, to use the strike. Teachers' strikes emphasize forcibly the great need to reexamine personnel policies. Teachers have never been hasty to use the strike; rather teachers' strikes have always come after long delays, evasions, blind adherence to outmoded personnel policies, and antagonism toward public schools.<sup>12</sup>

The charge that the AFT is not yet professional is partially valid. The federation has done very little if anything to professionalize itself. But the AFT is no worse off than the NEA or the state associations. One of the greatest needs of our time is professionalization of existing teachers' organizations. The greatest gains will be made in local units if teachers will undertake the job. But the pot must be careful that it does not engage in the dangerous pastime of labeling the kettle black.

It is likewise true that the AFT has been primarily concerned with improving the salaries of teachers and securing for them such fringe benefits as tenure, retirement, sick leave, and sabbatical leave, but the NEA has been similarly engaged along with the state teachers' associations. Actually the major goals of the NEA and state teachers' associations for the past two decades have been about the same as those ascribed to the AFT. All have worked assiduously for teachers' rights, teachers' welfare, and fringe benefits. None of them has devoted much time or energy to assuming any responsibility for educating teachers in service or for improving instruction.

Fear that boards of education will oppose affiliation with the AFT because of its affiliation with labor is well founded. Many members of boards of education in the country do represent points of view which are more characteristic of management than of labor. This is not always true, however, and occasionally a school district is governed by a board of education which requests the teachers to form a union and to affiliate with the AFT.<sup>13</sup>

There is little if any reason to fear communist infiltration into the AFT. The AFT has just as strong a policy regarding refusal to enroll teachers with communist, fascist, or totalitarian connections as does the NEA. Actually both the AFT and the NEA have taken positive steps to eliminate such subversives. On the other hand, neither organization has made any

<sup>12</sup> Betty L. W. Dewey, *Teacher Strikes in the United States, January 1, 1946 to December 31, 1952*, Master's paper, School of Education, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn., 1953.

<sup>13</sup> This was the case in School District 99, Cicero, Ill.



attempt to restrict membership to those who are positively committed to free, tax-supported public education as essential to American democracy. Both groups have assumed that all members are so committed, but neither has made a move to be certain.

Teachers, in general, have developed upper-middle-class values. They prefer to be grouped with lawyers, physicians, businessmen, dentists, and others because our whole social structure seems to give great weight to material wealth as a measure of success.<sup>14</sup> Teachers hope that their salaries will someday be high enough so that they will be able to live like those who have social status because of material wealth. Teachers find it difficult to associate themselves with labor because they realize that laborers are at the bottom in terms of material wealth. Right or wrong, this does seem to be the situation.

There is a current trend today to include superintendents as members of the teaching staff. This is the result of efforts to democratize administration. The AFT should recognize this. To perpetuate the cleavage between superintendents and teachers merely because in the past administrators behaved more like Hitler than like champions of democracy is unnecessary and unwise. The AFT should devise ways by which superintendents of schools who have established records of democratic administration could and would be admitted to membership in the local units of the AFT if invited to do so by a vote of the local unit. (This practice is actually followed now for principals if the local unit votes by a two-thirds majority to invite the principal to join.)

One of the chief obstacles to be overcome by the NEA is the separation which exists between the local unit and the association. This has been recognized by the NEA in its Centennial Action Program. In developing this program, the association has indicated that a problem of greatest importance is the development of more effective local units in which teachers can become more active participants in making the vocation of teaching a real profession. Too often the local units resemble student government agencies in the schools: They are led to believe that they govern themselves but are constantly being "persuaded" to adopt measures which have been handed down. This situation causes many teachers to look upon existing teachers' organizations somewhat as "company unions" which maintain the *status quo* and occasionally vote to send flowers to teachers who are ill.

The goals of the NEA are comprehensive and broad; its many departments and commissions render a great service to public education and to democracy itself; it must be regarded as the most comprehensive of all teachers' organizations in the world. But the NEA cannot afford to lose

<sup>14</sup> Arthur Goldberg, *The Social-class Origins and Values of Teachers*, Doctoral Dissertation, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn., 1952.



its soul by neglecting the teacher in the local school system. Teachers should take steps to reorganize the NEA from the local unit up—rather than from the top unit down.

#### DESIRABLE CHARACTERISTICS OF A LOCAL UNIT OF TEACHERS

1. The local unit should be open to all certified personnel employed by the local board of education provided such persons meet the professional qualifications established by the unit. This means that the local unit should include the superintendent of schools, the principals, the teachers, nurses, and all other certified members of the professional staff.
2. The local unit should provide for two types of membership:
  - a. Active members who have equal votes.
  - b. Probationary members who must serve as probationary members for a year or two before having a vote.
3. The local unit should establish professional requirements for active membership in terms of
  - a. A commitment to free, tax-supported, public education.
  - b. College preparation for teaching or serving in the schools.
  - c. Experience as a teacher or other professional worker.
  - d. Certification by legal certifying agencies.
  - e. Agreement to accept and to abide by a code of ethics adopted by the group.
4. The local unit should develop and continuously examine and revise a code of ethics to which every active member should be required to make commitment.
5. The local unit should be positive in its support of free, public, tax-supported education as essential to our form of government.
6. The local unit should require that teachers who become members shall not be members of organizations which advocate the changing of our government by any means other than those provided in the Constitution of the United States.
7. The local unit should have a written constitution and bylaws which clearly outline its purposes and goals.
8. The local unit should require that new members agree to abide by and conform to the constitution and bylaws as modified and amended according to the rules governing amendments.
9. The local unit should, by its own vote, as provided in its constitution, make its own selection of state organizations, national organizations, and special organizations with which it should affiliate. It should have the right to refuse to affiliate with any external agency.
10. The local unit should determine its own dues in relation to the organizations with which it affiliates and should establish local dues which will include all assessments or dues to organizations with which it is affiliated.
11. The local unit should have a program for action which has been developed by the membership.
12. The local unit should provide that each member has one, and only one,



vote and that all officers and representatives to affiliated bodies must be elected by secret ballot.

13. The local unit should keep accurate and complete records of all its deliberations and should make copies of all minutes available to all members.
14. The local unit should avoid such pitfalls as succession to office, appointed committees, appointed boards of control or executive councils, appointed nominating committees, self-perpetuating committees or councils, and ex officio rights to hold office.
15. Administrators and supervisors should be entitled to vote and to hold office, if elected, but should not be entitled to hold any office by virtue of their administrative or supervisory positions.
16. The local unit should be part and parcel of the whole school organization and not apart from it.
17. The local unit should be subdivided on a school-building basis rather than by such divisions as legislative, public relations, etc.
18. The local unit should devote a major portion of its energy toward education of teachers in service and toward education of the community. Committees should be organized in each building to study
  - a. Ways and means of improving the curriculum.
  - b. Ways and means of improving cooperation between home and school.
  - c. Ways and means of improving teaching services.
  - d. Teacher welfare.
  - e. School problems which occur.
  - f. Legislation affecting schools.
19. The local unit should establish school-wide committees which grow out of school-building committees, providing that each building committee select a representative to serve on the school-wide committee.
20. The local unit should establish special committees as needed.
21. The local unit should provide means for establishing liaison with such community groups as the PTA, League of Women Voters, labor organizations, service clubs, Chamber of Commerce, Citizens for Public Education, and others.
22. The local unit should provide means for expelling members found guilty of unprofessional conduct.
23. The local unit should provide means for expelling members who fail to live up to the code of ethics or to other requirements for membership.

Teachers have responsibilities as well as rights; they should take steps to assume those responsibilities by developing teachers' organizations which establish professional standards and by protecting such standards against infringement by members with the group. Before real professional status can be acquired, teachers themselves must share control instead of leaving the control entirely to administrators, boards of education, state legislatures, or state departments of education. This cannot be accomplished until teachers' organizations develop plans which will enable



teachers to pass upon the qualifications of those who are to be admitted to the profession, until teachers have the authority, through their own associations, to assume the role of being the jury which decides whether a teacher is to be dismissed from the profession.

Organization of teachers is absolutely essential, yet the control of such organizations must be kept in the hands of teachers themselves; it must not be allowed to fall into the hands of career seekers, union agents, superintendents of schools, or secretaries of teachers' organizations. The Centennial Action Program of the NEA should appeal to every teacher in America; it is flexible enough to meet the needs of teachers; it is challenging enough to cause teachers to rise to new heights—but unless it becomes organic in character, unless it centers its energies upon the local unit rather than upon building prestige for the parent organization, it is not likely to be of much force or consequence.

One of the basic differences between a democracy like ours and a totalitarian state such as Russia is the fact that in this country we always find a place for two parties, both of which are working for the best interests of the country as they see it, while in Russia only one party is permitted to exist. Not all Americans align themselves with either of the major parties; in fact, the people are divided sometimes one way and at other times another way. There are great similarities in the two major political parties, but one group is recognized as more concerned with the point of view of labor than the other. We do not attempt to force people to join one party—we may attack the point of view of those who do not belong to "our party"—but we insist that two parties exist.

Perhaps this is the point of view we should take regarding the two leading teachers' organizations. The platform of the NEA and the platform of the AFT are both designed to improve public education in the United States. On nearly all the major issues, the two great groups of teachers are in agreement. However, they differ with respect to alignments; the NEA has established liaison relationships with the American Medical Association, the American Legion, The National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and the American Library Association; the AFT has cast its lot with the American Federation of Labor. While both groups favor Federal aid to education, the NEA differs from the AFT in its interpretation of the nature of desirable Federal aid.

It appears that the AFT distrusts school administrators more than the NEA does. But even this comparison is not quite fair, because the largest group of NEA members, representing 85 per cent of the membership, belong to the Department of Classroom Teachers, which excludes all persons who do not actually teach in the classroom.

Instead of attempting to eliminate the NEA or the AFT so that only "one party" for education will exist, it is very much American to recognize



that both groups are working for essentially the same goals in different ways. According to the tradition of the United States, teachers are not faced with an either-or proposition; rather there is every reason to believe that teachers should remember the Biblical story of the coin in which the inquirer was advised to "Render unto Caesar the things that are Caesar's." Teachers should enroll in local associations of teachers, and the local associations should be assured that they can make their own decisions regarding groups with which they affiliate.

There are many reasons why a teacher should be a member of the state association of teachers; there are many reasons why a teacher should belong to the NEA. Chief among the reasons is that these organizations have been, and are, doing great work for the cause of education. But there is no sound reason why teachers should not hold membership in the AFT. There is no good reason why the support of labor should not be sought in the development of the best educational program the nation can afford. Actually, there are many situations in which affiliation with labor will be found to be the only effective means of achieving this goal. It is both unwise and unfair for those who support the NEA in preference to the AFT to deny the thesis that the schools should enlist the full support of organized labor.

John Dewey said in 1949,

I do not believe that any educational organization is more ready or better prepared to take a courageous view of the present situation than is the American Federation of Teachers. It has never been a body to take the cheap and easy way; it has never cultivated illusions about the seriousness of the work to be done. It has recognized that together with its larger organization, the American Federation of Labor, it has a cause that demands, and that has obtained, and will continue to obtain alertness of observation and planning, and solidarity in action.

I count it one of the satisfactions of my own teaching career that I have had from the first the opportunity to be a member of a local of the American Federation of Teachers. Today, I prize this special opportunity to join in rejoicing in its past, and in looking forward with confidence to its future.

May it continue to be steadfast in the great work in behalf of the schools of America, in a world that must grow in common understanding if it is not to perish.<sup>15</sup>

William G. Carr, of the NEA, recently said,

Efforts are even now being made to divide us, to create splinter organizations, to play upon sectional or other prejudices, or to embroil our organization in controversies outside its proper scope. A calculated campaign of confusion aims to mislead the people of the United States into the monstrous

<sup>15</sup> From a message of greeting to the 1949 convention of the AFT in Milwaukee, Wis.



error that their teachers are led by disloyal people and motivated by disloyal purposes. This campaign seeks to divide the profession and to divide the teachers from the people.

If such efforts should succeed, the end of our system of education would not be far away. It is therefore our clear duty both as teachers and as citizens to repulse these unprincipled onslaughts on a great American institution. Now is the time to perfect our own unity and to strengthen our bonds with the American people.<sup>16</sup>

On the same question the AFT expressed itself as follows:

As the American Federation of Teachers meets in annual convention in 1952, the United States is faced with one of the most critical periods in its history. The democratic government, which is the foundation of our free society, is challenged throughout the world, and our system of free education, which is the indispensable foundation of our free government, is under attack on the home front. Self-styled super-patriots are seizing upon the real danger which threatens our democratic society as an excuse for attacking the very foundation of our free nation. This is a matter of deep concern to the American Federation of Teachers, since suppression of the freedom of the teacher is a major first step in the crushing of the democracy of a nation. The freedom of the teacher is essential to the freedom of the nation. To the extent that freedom is denied to teachers, freedom has been banished from the nation.

Those who attack the public school system for selfish purposes undermine the basic structure of our democratic government.

In the face of the ominous threats to free public education in the United States from the most powerful forces ever marshaled against the nation's children, it is time for true greatness, unselfish leadership, and zealous devotion to the high principles upon which the AFT was founded. It is a time when we must consolidate our forces, eliminate internal dissension, and turn our guns upon the enemies of education rather than upon our brothers in the ranks. It is a time when we must marshal the full strength of organized labor, traditional friend and supporter of the public schools, in an all-out defense against the powerful forces which are attacking the nation's free school system and threatening the very existence of democratic government in the United States. The AFT—as no other organization—is in a position to organize the most powerful support in defense against those who would destroy or weaken the public school system upon which our nation is founded.

It must be our objective, therefore, first to build the strength of the AFT to its maximum power and then employ that power against the powerful enemies which oppose us on the educational battle front. For the sake of the children in the schools, who will have the responsibility of defending democracy tomorrow, we dare not fail in the profound challenges which face us in 1952.<sup>17</sup>

<sup>16</sup> William G. Carr, "Now Is the Time," *NEA Journal*, p. 334, September, 1952.

<sup>17</sup> Irvin R. Kuenzli, *The Union in Action in 1952*, A Report of the 35th Annual Convention, pp. 2-3, AFT, Chicago, 1952.



The time has come for all American teachers to unite in a common front against the enemies about which Mr. Carr and Mr. Kuenzli speak. It is an old trick to divide and conquer. As teachers we cannot afford to be caught in such a maneuver; the stakes are too great. Teachers, through their organizations, have been fairly successful in bringing pressure to bear upon lawmaking bodies to raise salaries and to provide tenure, they have been reasonably successful in protecting the schools from politicians, and they have been reasonably successful in raising funds for needed school buildings. But the problem faced by citizens now goes far beyond economic status for teachers and new school buildings; it goes to the very roots of American philosophy: Shall the people of the United States continue to provide free, public, tax-supported schools for all the children of all the people?

Teachers' organizations must bury the interorganizational hatchets and align themselves with other groups of people whether parents, civil-service workers, employers, or workers in shops, factories, and offices to fight for the free public schools of our nation.

The open alliance of teachers with workers as found in the AFT must be looked upon by the most ardent and biased supporters of the NEA as a powerful alliance in the interests of the public schools. Schools have always been supported by labor. The reason is very obvious. The well-to-do can afford to pay for private schooling—the workers must depend upon the public schools.

If the teachers of America allow themselves to be tricked into pitting teachers' unions against state teachers' associations or the NEA against the AFT, it is not the teachers who will suffer so much as it is the future of American democracy and freedom. When the stakes are so great, we cannot bicker, we cannot quarrel, we must unite for common action.

The question arises at this point: How can information concerning teacher activity in organizations be used advantageously in solving the problems of teacher personnel? The writer must begin this discussion by telling a story of an experience with a janitors' union in School District 99, Cicero, Ill.

The teachers and the principal of one of the schools had filed a written complaint concerning one janitor in the building who appeared for work on Monday mornings still suffering from overconsumption of alcoholic beverage. The writer, then superintendent of schools in Cicero, notified the agent for the janitors' union of the complaint, and requested him to call at the office regarding the matter. The union agent came for the discussion as requested. After being given the facts, he visited the janitor about whom the complaint had been filed. An hour or so later he returned to report that the accusations were correct, the janitor had been warned orally, and would be warned in writing, that should a second offense



occur, his expulsion from the union would be requested. The agent also reminded the superintendent that the board of education had a collective bargaining agreement with the janitors' union providing for employment of none other than members of the union. It followed, therefore, that if the janitor in question were dropped from the union, he would likewise lose his position as janitor in the schools. The agent suggested, therefore, that the superintendent should interview two or three unassigned members of the union so that in the event a replacement was necessary, a new janitor could be located quickly.

Several weeks later, the teachers and principal filed a second complaint against the same janitor for the same reason. Again, the agent was called. Again, a personal check was made. Again, the investigation proved the accusation, and the janitor was notified that at the next regular meeting of the union, his expulsion would be requested on the ground that he had violated the code adopted by the union.

A day later, the superintendent received a written resignation from the janitor involved. A replacement was found very quickly.

Subsequently, the superintendent and the union agent discussed the whole affair. The union agent asserted that the janitors' union felt that every member had a right to follow his own choices, provided his conduct was not inimical to the best interests of the schools—that when his conduct was not in the best interest of the schools, he could no longer be supported by his own organization. The union, therefore, had disciplined its own member. The officers had presented the possibility of expulsion so effectively that the janitor chose to resign his position rather than face the condemnation of his fellows.

Perhaps if teachers, through their organizations, could translate their common beliefs and commitments into such self-discipline, there would be less and less need for the kind of administration which teachers dislike because it is "autocratic."

It is an interesting fact that teachers often refuse to accept responsibility through their own organizations but at the same time object vehemently when executive officers employed by the board of education do their prescribed duty of taking action.

If teachers are to seek higher salaries, they should take action themselves to weed out the incompetents and the drones, they should take action themselves through their organizations to improve the quality of teaching, they should take action themselves to develop better curricula for the children, they should take action themselves to improve the guidance services in the schools, and they should continually seek to promote better community-teacher understanding of the importance and significance of public education.

Administrators have the responsibility of supplying the leadership



necessary to cause teachers to see the tremendous, potential, and significant opportunities which they possess in organization for the improvement of public education in America. Administrators, instead of silently opposing teachers' organizations, should be actively engaged in encouraging teachers' organizations to play larger and larger roles in the process of educational planning and policy making; they should be increasingly concerned with becoming members in the "common purpose" sense so that their leadership becomes increasingly incident to the group and, hence, more and more effective. If, somehow, administrators and teachers can realize that through organization they can enter into each other's lives and discover common purposes which will control their common conduct, they will make great progress in the interest of children and for the welfare of our people at large. Freedom is the outcome of human relationships involving acceptance of a pattern of social control which is incident to the group. The individual achieves freedom only when the group to which he belongs exercises intelligent control by consensus. It is a primary task of educational leaders to help teachers discover this means of freedom.

### SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. In your state, can a local union affiliated with the AFT also be a local unit of the state teachers' association? Write your state association headquarters to get the answer.

2. What is your reaction to joining a teachers' union?

3. What changes could be made in your local teachers' organization to cause more teachers to be interested?

4. What are the advantages of belonging to the NEA?

5. Would it be a wise move for the AFT and the Department of Classroom Teachers of the NEA to unite and form one organization affiliated with the NEA? Explain.

6. Check your own local teachers' organization against the criteria in this chapter.

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## CHAPTER 18    *Participation in Administration by Teachers*

It is a common practice to talk about democracy in school administration, but it is not so common to find deliberately planned organizational procedures for achieving democratic administration. In preceding chapters, it has been repeatedly pointed out that the best solutions to problems of the professional personnel are discovered by cooperative planning. Now we ask the question: How can schools be organized so that the participation of teachers in planning is guaranteed without conflicting with commonly accepted beliefs that boards of education have the power and authority to determine policy? How can school administration be designed to include teacher participation and yet preserve the status leaders' position in the school?

Many superintendents of schools and school principals are wary of broad attempts to include teachers in plans for administration of schools. Many boards of education look askance at attempts to involve teachers in policy making and planning. To a marked degree, this attitude of skepticism expressed by administration toward participation stems from earlier educational training. For example, a well-known and, at that time, well-received textbook in administration contained the following:

Every business, whether public or private, must be administered if it is to pay dividends in money or in service. Stockholders of industrial concerns have historically been aware of the need for proper administration of such concerns. . . . There are hundreds of details incident to the running of an efficient school or a school system for which someone must be responsible. Plans must be made and policies adopted; the plans and policies must be properly carried out or executed and information must be collected which will show how efficiently the plans and policies are operating, and which will also become the basis for new plans and policies. This is a general statement of the function of administration.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Ward G. Reeder, *The Fundamentals of Public School Administration*, p. 3, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1930.



The same author quoted a statement from the publication of the Department of Superintendence of the NEA as an indication of the duties and responsibilities of school administrators, as follows:<sup>2</sup>

- (a) All the educational activities of the city should be *centered* in the office of the superintendent of schools.
- (b) The administrative work of the schools should be based upon principles of business administration; certain functions should be *delegated* to competent *subordinates*.
- (c) The superintendent should have *power* to *initiate* and to *execute* appointment of employees.
- (d) The budget should be prepared by the superintendent of schools.
- (e) The superintendent should have the power to *initiate* new policies and to *make rules and regulations*.
- (f) The superintendent should *supervise* instruction.
- (g) The superintendent should *select* textbooks.
- (h) The superintendent should have *authority* over employees.

Many superintendents of schools and many school principals now serving in the schools were *taught* that the chief administrator of a school system was elected to his office for the purpose of determining policies, recommending policies to the board, executing the policies, and evaluating the policies. Furthermore, these same administrators have, in many cases, educated boards of education, often against their own better judgments, that boards of education should elect superintendents to "run the schools."

It is not surprising, therefore, to find that large numbers of school administrators talk like Jefferson but act like Hamilton. They have recognized that we cannot expect to teach people the art of democratic living in a social situation which is authoritarian in nature. They realize that schools *should* be administered according to a democratic pattern. They *tell* people that schools should be organized to give teachers a definite part in planning and policy making, but they have been trapped by their own learnings; they have convinced boards of education according to their early teachings; they have become habituated to procedures which violate their own beliefs. And what is worse, many are at loss concerning a method for making the transition from "superintendent-centered schools" to "cooperative schools."

In defense of themselves, when presented with recommendations for changing to more democratic plans or organization, these men often offer some interesting, but understandable, excuses.

Some administrators say they cannot accept democratic administration

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 29-30, quoted from *The Status of the Superintendent*, First Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the NEA, p. 18. The italics are added.



because they are held responsible and that if responsibility and control are to run parallel, they should have complete control. This objection is based upon a naïve belief that boards of education expect superintendents to *initiate* policies, *initiate* plans of action, and *initiate* whatever is accomplished in the schools. If this were a sound assumption, it would mean that boards of education really take the position that they are mere "rubber-stamping bodies." Practically all boards would deny that they should be so considered. Boards of education expect cooperative planning—at least to the extent that the board is included. Thus the objecting superintendent finds himself in a compromising position; he either supports the rubber-stamp theory or he admits that boards desire cooperative planning. It is clear that objectors of this type have never clarified their own thinking on the question of responsibility. Boards of education hold school superintendents responsible for executing plans of action and for executing plans according to policies developed cooperatively. Boards of education are seldom willing to admit that the powers to make plans and to develop policies are both vested in the superintendent. Legally, they cannot admit it.

Now, if the power to develop policies is not to be lodged in one person, who should participate? A little knowledge of psychology and research in social control leads one to assert that everyone affected by the policy should have a share in its determination. Boards of education can do a better job of determining policy if they have the benefit of the thinking and inquiry of the professional staff as well as the products of thinking of the superintendent.

The real cause of the objection described is fear on the part of the superintendent that his own status might be questioned, that his own ability to mobilize the intelligence of the professional staff might be found wanting, and that his faith in the professional staff may be weak. Thus the objection becomes a sort of defense mechanism and an exposé of the administrator's basic lack of faith in people. Since democracy is based, primarily, upon faith in people and faith in intelligence, such an objector can scarcely be called a true believer in democratic administration. Lack of faith in people and lack of faith in intelligence are not conducive to teacher growth, child growth, democratic practices, or effectiveness in school administration.

A second objection which is occasionally heard is expressed by the statement, "I can see things from the broad point of view." This smug sort of attitude has little argument in its favor. It simply cannot stand under careful scrutiny. To take such a position is to assume qualities of intelligence which border upon the supernatural. Actually, school administrators differ as widely as teachers with respect to desirable goals and with respect to plans for achieving the goals. To take the position



that "I can see things from the broad point of view" really means that the view of the administrator should be accepted by all the people involved. Such procedure surely and certainly leads to distrust, dulling of intelligence, and deep-rooted emotional conflicts. This objection is based upon a conviction of superiority and upon a desire to maintain status.

A third objection often heard is, "Such participation is inefficient." The basic assumption underlying this objection is that efficiency is a universal value of an absolute nature, but efficiency must always be measured in terms of the desired results, not in terms of some arbitrary unit. The mine operator may measure efficiency of organization in terms of the number of tons mined per day, or he may measure it in terms of the amount of profits per dollar invested. Too much coal may reduce profits. Or the mine owner might measure efficiency in terms of the happiness of the miners. The goals cast the mold for the measure of efficiency; efficiency is never absolute; it must always be measured in terms of the desired results. The schools are designed primarily to produce growth of intelligence, to produce growth in the ability to participate in the solution of problems. If the administrator assumes that he alone is to make policy, he denies the teachers the right to participate in activities which are likely to produce growth. In these days "growth of teachers in service" is a byword with superintendents; scarcely a superintendent can be found who would not agree that one of the chief jobs of administration is to bring about teacher improvement. Thus efficiency must be measured in terms of growth, and when it is measured in such terms, efficiency is emergent only when teachers have positive and large parts in the determining of policies.

"I'm the expert," say some. These objectors fail, however, to complete the sentence by indicating in what areas they are experts. Are they expert executives? If so, let them demonstrate that expertness by artistically executing the plans of actions arrived at by consensus. Are they experts in public relations? If so, let them exercise that expertness in acquainting the public with the plans devised by cooperative action. Are they experts in curriculum revision? Let them act as resource persons for teachers who are studying the curriculum. Are they experts in finance? Let them use that expertness in translating the cooperatively devised proposals into budgets. Actually, if superintendent are experts, and most of them are more expert than others in many areas, the basic reason for their expertness stems from the fact that they have participated more in group discussions and in group situations. They have had more opportunities to share ideas with other educators; they have been given more opportunities to attend professional meetings; they belong to more organizations where decisions have been made by groups; they have engaged in more cooperative planning with boards of education. In fact,



if they are experts, it is very likely that their experiences as participants have made them so. Why do they attempt to deny to teachers the very type of experience which has enriched their own powers? The real basis for this objection lies in feelings that their own status might be challenged if teachers could become expert, too. It is an old trick of autocratic rule to keep the ruled in ignorance. It is no new device to maintain status by denying co-workers the opportunity to grow. Neither is it within the framework of our democratic theory of social control. If intelligence is of basic value, all participants must be guaranteed the right to become ever more expert.

If the professional staff is to decide what to do, say some, "What is left for me?" Administration, however, connotes carrying out plans of action. Actually, any administrator who encourages staff participation will find that he has infinitely more to do than before. Teachers can devise policies faster than most administrators can execute plans appropriate to them. The trouble with these administrators is that they are seeking easy ways; they are afraid to face the responsibility of executing plans of action. Thus such an objector is exposing lack of confidence in his own ability. When a superintendent devises the plans, no one but himself is aware of failure, but if others share in the development of plans, they will watch with keen interest the execution of them.

Another objection is that extensive participation leads to committees and that committee action leads to bureaucracy. This objection is a play upon words and meanings. It is artificial and counterfeit. If the objector thinks of cooperative planning as mere division of labor, that is one thing; but if he thinks of cooperative planning as the pooling of the inquiry and judgment of smaller groups in the solution of problems, it is another. If a teacher committee functions as an autonomous unit, a form of bureaucracy might develop; but if a committee studies a problem for the purpose of submitting its findings to the larger group for action, the procedure is not bureaucratic. The first procedure is not advocated.

The objectors to cooperative planning, it seems, lack faith in professional workers, they fear their own incompetencies, they set up compensation mechanisms to preserve status, and they lack adequate understanding of the growth aspects of democratic controls.

Today there are challenges to democracy at all corners of the earth. Our very democratic ideals are being threatened at every hand. They can be perpetuated only if they prove their effectiveness. School administrators have the unusual privilege of enlisting the creative abilities of teachers in the great task of administering public education. Administrators have the opportunity to extend to the entire professional personnel the satisfaction which comes from cooperative enterprise. As teachers thrill from the experience, they are most likely to extend similar opportunities



to children, and if children recapture the thrill of democratic participation, we need have no fear about the realization of our great American dream.

There is, however, a continued need for "status leaders" in the public schools.

### *The Continued Need for Status Leaders*

The superintendent of schools and the principal of a school have roles to play which are essential to successful operation of a school system. Even though teachers should have a large part in planning, policy making, and evaluation of plans of action, there is still a great need for status leaders, and probably there always will be such a need.

It is one thing to arrive at a course of action by cooperative planning, but it is quite a different problem to enforce that course of action. No plan or policy, no set of rules and regulations, no program of action is worth the energy required for its development unless action results. There is a need for execution. The status leader is essential to execution.

Authority is a practical necessity in social situations of all types. Authority is essential in the operation of a school system. But authority in a democratic society lies not in persons, but in common agreement concerning a course of action. If there is no common agreement, only one alternative exists: to establish authority in a person. Thus the really difficult problem facing educational leaders is the problem of devising practical means for arriving at a commonly accepted course of action. Once a course of action is discovered and accepted, there is a demand for leadership to carry out the plans quickly, efficiently, and effectively.

If a school administrator is faced with the problem of executing plans of action which have emerged from deliberation and inquiry by the professional staff and the board of education, he must make decisions quickly in terms of the plan of action or his adequacy as a leader will be judged low. In the eyes of individuals who participated in group planning, the administrator must learn how to translate policies into action quickly.

Furthermore, the administrator who is successful in executing policies developed through cooperative deliberation must understand those policies so thoroughly that he can make decisions with confidence. If a leader does not create the impression that he has confidence in his decisions, his adequacy will be judged low by those who helped to devise the policy which he is utilizing in making decisions. If the school superintendent fails to execute with confidence and dispatch plans of action developed jointly by the staff and board, he is very likely to lose face quickly, and if he loses prestige by such failure, he may also lose his position as status leader.

The status leader must learn to control his emotions; if he is not in sympathy with the policy which has been approved by the board of



education following deliberation and inquiry by the staff, he cannot afford to "fly off the handle" or sulk over the situation, because if he does, the group of professional people with whom he works will assign a low rating to his leadership. On the contrary, the status leader must swallow his pride and prove that whether or not he agrees with the policy, he will execute plans of action which conform to the policy. Sometimes such behavior is not easy. But it is necessary.

The status leader cannot afford to give the professional staff the impression that he thoroughly enjoys authority. To do so is likely to destroy the confidence of professional people who are least dependent upon him, namely, the emergent leaders of the groups who have participated in planning, deliberation, and inquiry.

At times the status leader may be called upon to risk his own personal welfare in carrying out his obligations to the group. While such situations are never pleasant, a group which is highly polarized around goals and purposes invariably attaches great significance and importance to willingness on the part of the leader to respond, when called upon, to risk his personal welfare in carrying out the plans of action devised by the group.

Status leaders should let members of the professional group know that they enjoy the company of members of the profession more than they enjoy the company of members of the board of education or of the political leaders in the community. The leader who creates the impression that he prefers to associate with those who control is usually judged as a poor leader by groups where morale is low, in groups where there is emphasis upon formality, and in larger organizations. Unless the status leader has really supported, actively, cooperative action leading to high morale, a strong feeling of togetherness, and freedom of communication, he will suffer seriously by showing evidence of preferring to be with those who legally control the school.

It is highly important that status leaders understand the meaning of policies so thoroughly that it will be unnecessary for them to reverse themselves. The leader who frequently reverses his decisions is usually judged to be a poor leader in groups where there is a high degree of agreement concerning a course of action.

Being a status leader in school situations where policy is determined by cooperative action is a tough job, but it is an essential one. Usually policies are broad and general. To carry out policies, it is necessary to be detailed and specific. The thinking of many on specifics is wasteful and confusing. Someone must translate general policy and general outlines of plans into specifics. This is the job of the superintendent of schools and his designated status leaders. Miller and Spalding have indicated the importance of status leaders as follows:<sup>3</sup>

<sup>3</sup> Van Miller and W. B. Spalding, *The Public Administration of American Schools*, pp. 491-492, World Book Company, New York, 1952.



In executing policy the status leader will find it necessary to have principals do some things, teachers do others, bookkeepers and purchasing agents do still others, and so on. He will be involved with secretaries, storeroom clerks, deliverymen, sellers, and a host of people. Unless he has authority, he may not be able to get all of them to help put the policy into effect. As he executes policy, he carries on many specific acts, each of which is necessary if the general policy is to be effective. A major difference between the development of policy and the execution of it lies in the difference between general principles and specific acts.

Status leaders, then, are needed to effect the execution of the agreements reached by the groups they serve. They are needed to maintain and improve the organization of each group.

The problems which arise in connection with administration of the personnel of the schools are extremely difficult for the status leader, the superintendent of schools. The superintendent is an intermediary between the professional staff and the lay board of education. He is frequently forced to face two ways. Unless he has the support and confidence of his professional associates, he is fortunate if he can escape the development of a divided personality. There is always the danger that the superintendent will become so immersed in the detail and routine of his office that he can give little if any attention to the significant personnel problems which demand solution. Under such conditions the status leader is often forced to assume a position favoring the *status quo*. The business aspects of the school system, the pressures of building programs, the pressures of political forces and heavy taxpayers, and the petty complaints of parents harass the average superintendent to the point where he may become frantic and frustrated. To expect such a status leader to assume the additional responsibilities of creating new plans of action for dealing with personnel problems is naïve indeed. The answer to this difficult situation lies in organizing the professional staff of the schools so that the personnel of the schools can spend the necessary time in deliberation, inquiry, discussion, and evaluation to the end that through their pooled efforts more appropriate policies can be presented to the board of education for legal action. The wise superintendent will give great support to staff participation in determining policies which affect the professional staff, and once such policies have been enacted into legal policies by the board of education, such an administrator will execute the policies by means of the executive organization of the school, delegating responsibility and authority as the needs may require.

There is nothing so important in the United States as rethinking the whole problem of democratic control and its implications for every social or economic group. Neither the rethinking nor the action growing therefrom can be brought about in a day, a week, or a year. The very nature



of democracy demands that thinking, discussion, deliberation, and inquiry proceed cooperatively. If this book has any one purpose which is more important than others, it is to stimulate professional people to engage in the cooperative kind of inquiry which will do for educational practice that which is so sorely needed in all areas of public administration.

It is rather easy to find a way in which teacher participation will be possible, but that is not enough. We must find a pattern of organization which will guarantee that teachers will have a share in policy making, evolving plans of action, and evaluating plans of action.

To do this we should first examine what we know about learning. The psychologists tell us that motivation is the central problem in learning, that transfer of training is proportional to the degree to which situations are similar in meaning, that practice related to a meaningful goal is productive of learning, that responses of the learner are modified by the consequences, that learning best takes place when the learner sees a meaningful pattern, that behavior is selective in terms of goals thought to be valuable by the learner, and that responses are selected, eliminated, organized, and stabilized in terms of their relevance to the learner's goals.<sup>4</sup>

This synthesis-of-learning theory leads to the conclusion that a plan of administrative organization in a school should

1. Be designed to utilize the best thinking of the entire professional personnel in arriving at policies and plans of action.
2. Be designed to help the professional staff solve the problems which seem real and significant to them.
3. Be designed to cause the professional personnel to look upon rules and regulations as the moving spirit of the group.
4. Be designed to stimulate inquiry.
5. Be designed to result in plans of action rather than mere talk.
6. Be designed for carrying out plans of action with efficiency and dispatch.
7. Be designed to utilize the best thinking of the professional personnel in evaluating plans of action.
8. Be designed to give teachers satisfaction from seeing their thinking translated into appropriate action.
9. Be designed to utilize the creative ability of every professional agent.

Any sound plan of organization for guaranteeing teacher participation should start with the teacher in the classroom. Most of the important professional problems are to be found there.

All teachers in a given school building, including the principal, should organize, elect a chairman and a secretary, and proceed to establish sev-

<sup>4</sup> T. R. McConnell, "Synthesis of Learning Theories," *Psychology of Learning*, 41st Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, pp. 256-286, Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill., 1942.



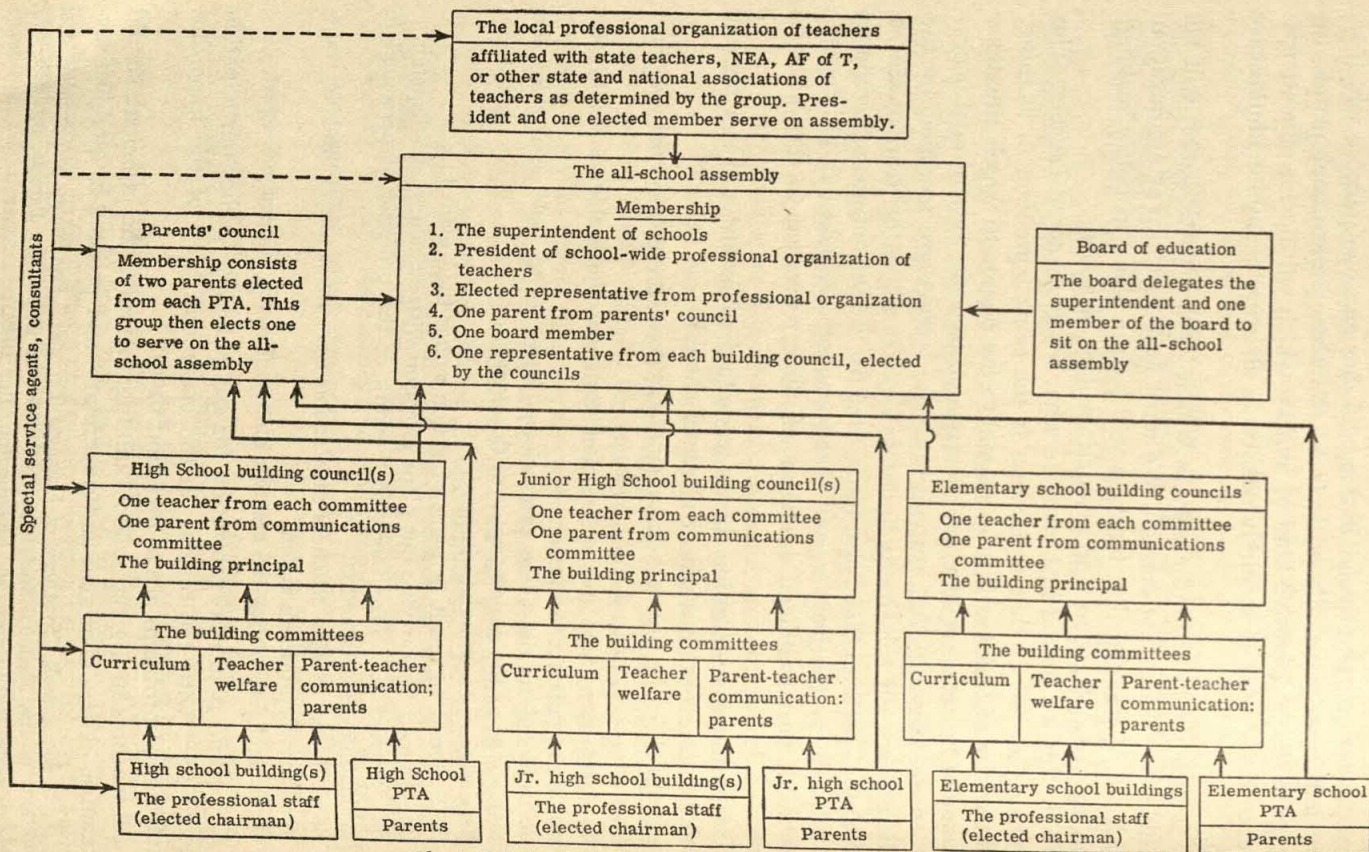


Chart I. Selection of Members of All-school Assembly



eral working committees. The number of committees should be directly proportional to the number of teachers in a building; where there are six teachers, no more than two committees should exist; where there are sixty teachers, as many as six or eight committees might well be established. Wherever possible, committees should be established for

1. Study of the purposes and goals of the school-building unit.
2. Study of the curriculum.
3. Improving home-school communication.
4. Improving teachers in service.
5. Studying all phases of teacher welfare.
6. Evaluation of the school's program.

In school buildings with less than twenty teachers, these committees probably should be reduced to three, as follows:

1. Committee to study the curriculum.
2. Committee to study improving home-school communication.
3. Committee to study teacher welfare.

Once the committees have been created by the staff, teachers should be requested to indicate on prepared ballots which committee they would prefer, indicating first, second, and third choices. The secretary should then list under each committee heading the names of all persons making that committee first choice. If one committee is overstaffed, the secretary should examine all ballots and transfer some to committees indicated as second choices. This process should continue until all committees are about equal in size. Every member of the staff should have the opportunity to serve on one committee.

Each committee should meet and elect a chairman and a secretary. The committee should define its purposes and goals, plan its time of meetings, and otherwise determine its own activities.

After the committees have organized, the staff as a whole should establish an over-all building council consisting of

1. The principal.
2. The chairman of the teachers in the building.
3. The elected chairmen of each committee (minimum of five).

The building council should have among its duties and responsibilities the following:

1. To examine and evaluate plans of action devised by the committees.
2. To suggest problems for study by the several committees.
3. To refer plans received, but rejected, back to the several committees for further consideration—with suggestions.
4. To request committees to revise or modify plans proposed.



5. To submit final proposals affecting only the local building to the entire faculty for examination, discussion, and action.
6. To submit proposals which affect agencies outside the local building to the all-school planning assembly for scrutiny and evaluation.
7. To modify proposals made in item 6 according to suggestions of the all-school assembly.
8. To elect one of its members to serve on the all-school assembly.
9. To call upon specialists and consultants employed by the district.

The principal should execute all plans developed by the building council with energy and dispatch. *The executive function should reside in the principal, not in the chairman of the faculty or in any committee.* This is very important. The development of policies must be a cooperative venture, but the execution of policy must be centralized or little action is likely to result. If the principal refuses or fails to execute policy developed by the staff through the organization, he should be asked by the superintendent to account for his inability or unwillingness to assume executive responsibility.

The entire staff of the whole school system should organize as a unit as described elsewhere.<sup>5</sup> In addition to electing a president and other officers, it should establish an all-school assembly consisting of:

1. The superintendent of schools.
2. The president of the local teachers' organization.
3. The elected representative from each of the building councils.
4. A member of the board of education.
5. A member selected from the PTA.

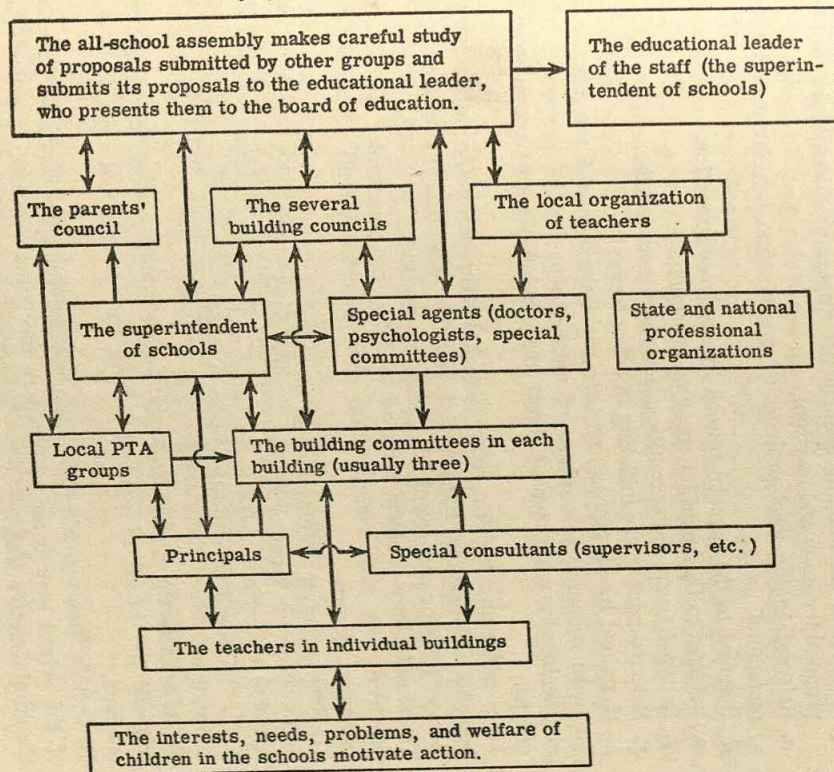
The all-school assembly should have the following powers and duties:

1. To examine all proposals made by the local professional organization of teachers and to determine whether or not such proposals should
  - a. Be approved and recommended to the board of education through the superintendent of schools.
  - b. Be referred back to the originating body for revision and/or reexamination.
  - c. Be referred to a special committee selected by the assembly.
  - d. Be referred to the several building councils for their study and for their reactions.
  - e. Be referred to the parent council.
  - f. Be rejected without referral.
2. To examine all proposals made by the parents' council and to determine whether or not such proposals should be
  - a. Approved and recommended to the board through the superintendent of schools.

<sup>5</sup> See chapters on Teacher Activity in Organizations, and Teachers' Organizations.



## Policy Making



## Execution

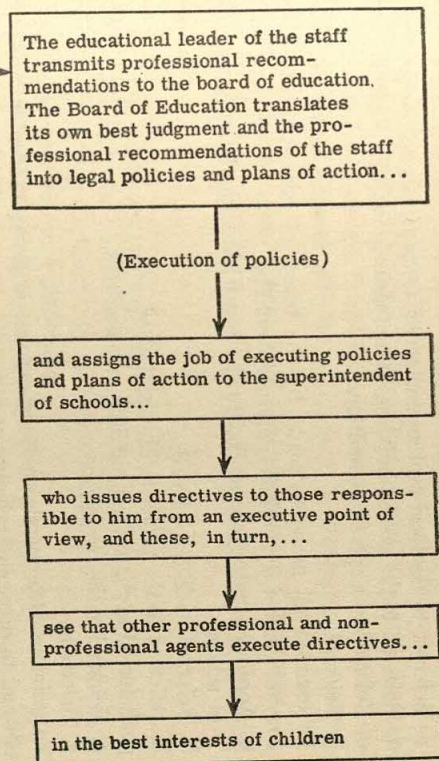


Chart II. Chart for Policy Making and Executive Action



- b.* Referred back to the parents' council.
  - c.* Referred to the local professional organization.
  - d.* Referred to the several building committees.
  - e.* Referred to a special committee.
  - f.* Rejected.
3. To examine all proposals made by the board of education and to determine whether or not such proposals should be
  - a.* Approved and recommended to the board through the superintendent of schools.
  - b.* Referred back to the board.
  - c.* Referred to the professional organization.
  - d.* Referred to the several building committees.
  - e.* Referred to the parents' council.
  - f.* Rejected.
4. To examine all proposals made by any one or more of the building councils and to determine whether or not such proposals should be
  - a.* Approved and recommended to the board of education through the superintendent of schools.
  - b.* Referred to the building councils not responsible for submission of the proposal for study and reaction.
  - c.* Referred to the local professional organization for study and recommendation.
  - d.* Referred to the parents' council for study and reaction.
  - e.* Referred to the board for study and reaction.
  - f.* Referred to special committees for study and reaction.
  - g.* Referred back to the initiating building council.
  - h.* Examined by all groups and then reexamined by the assembly.
5. To make proposals to any one or more groups for the purpose of stimulating inquiry which would result in receiving plans of action from the groups.
6. To consider any problem referred to it by the parents' council, the professional organization, the superintendent of schools, the board of education, or any one or more of the building councils.
7. To consider any problem referred to it by any community organization, provided that such consideration shall include referral to appropriate subsidiary groups.
8. To keep accurate minutes of all meetings and to send copies of such minutes to each member of the assembly, to the parents' council, the professional organization, the superintendent of schools, each building principal, the board of education, each building council, and each building committee.
9. To coordinate the activities of the several building councils, the parents' council, the board of education, and the professional organization of teachers.
10. To abstain from assuming any executive activities; the executive functions of the school system are assigned to the superintendent of schools and the administrative staff.



11. To appoint special committees without limitation as to number or purpose which shall report only to the assembly.
12. To utilize all the specialists, supervisors, consultants, physicians, nurses, etc., employed by the board for expert advice and council and to request such persons to meet with the assembly to help in formulating policies.

### *Functions of the Local Professional Organization of Teachers*

The local professional organization shall have the following powers and duties:

1. To adopt its own constitution and bylaws.
2. To affiliate with the state teachers' association, the NEA, the AFT, the Association for Childhood Education, or other professional organizations as its membership may determine.
3. To adopt a code of ethics and standards for membership.
4. To determine in its bylaws who shall be entitled to membership.
5. To develop a program for improvement of the services of the school.
6. To study any aspect of school administration, school operation, or any other problem concerning the schools.
7. To submit all proposals to the all-school assembly.
8. To receive and examine proposals from the all-school assembly.
9. To have representation on the all-school assembly in the persons of the president of the association and one member elected by the association.
10. To abstain from assuming any executive functions of school-system operation; the executive functions are assigned to the superintendent of schools and his administrative staff.
11. To abstain from submitting proposals to any building council, to the parents' council, or to the board of education; all proposals for consideration of any group or groups must first be submitted to the all-school assembly.
12. To utilize the services of all special agents employed by the board of education in the study of school problems (physicians, psychologists, nurses, attorneys, supervisors, consultants, special teachers, etc.).

### *Functions of the Parents' Council*

The parents' council shall have such powers and duties as it may determine, provided that it shall assume none of the executive functions of the superintendent of schools and his administrative staff, provided it shall assume no duties or responsibilities designated by law to the board of education, provided it shall issue proposals only to the PTA and to the all-school assembly. The parents' council shall have the following duties in addition:

1. To examine and react to proposals submitted to it by the all-school assembly.
2. To submit proposals to the all-school assembly.



3. To be represented on the all-school assembly by a parent elected by the council.
4. To utilize the services of especially trained professional agents of the board of education in the study of school problems.

### *Functions of the Board of Education*

The board of education is the legal body established by the laws of the state to determine officially policies for the operation of the schools. Its duties and powers are those prescribed by law, and nothing in this pattern of administrative organization shall be considered by any unit in administration as contrary to the legal responsibility of the board. This pattern of organization has been devised to assure the board of education that recommendations made to the board by its executive officer, the superintendent of schools, have been examined before submission to the board. While the superintendent of schools is the executive officer of the board, he is also the professional agent of the teachers and other certificated employees of the school. The board is invited to elect one of its members to serve as a voting member of the all-school assembly.

It is the intent of this organizational pattern to provide the necessary machinery to enable the superintendent to prepare his recommendations to the board of education with the word "we," which "we" should include parents, teachers, principals, teachers' organizations, the board, and the superintendent.

The professional personnel expect the board of education to delegate the execution of its policies to the superintendent of schools. The professional staff expects the superintendent to execute policies and plans of action adopted by the board of education with dispatch and efficiency.

None of the recommendations of the all-school assembly shall be considered binding upon the board of education, but the board should consider all such recommendations as the best thinking of those directly concerned with the professional aspects of all problems of the school.

### *Functions of the Building Councils*

The building councils shall have the following rights and duties:

1. To consider all proposals and recommendations submitted by the standing committees created by the teachers in the building.
2. To submit proposals to the committees.
3. To submit proposals to the all-school assembly.
4. To examine and react to proposals made by the all-school assembly.
5. To examine and react to proposals made by the building principal.
6. To cooperate fully with the all-school assembly.
7. To create special committees which shall report only to the building council.



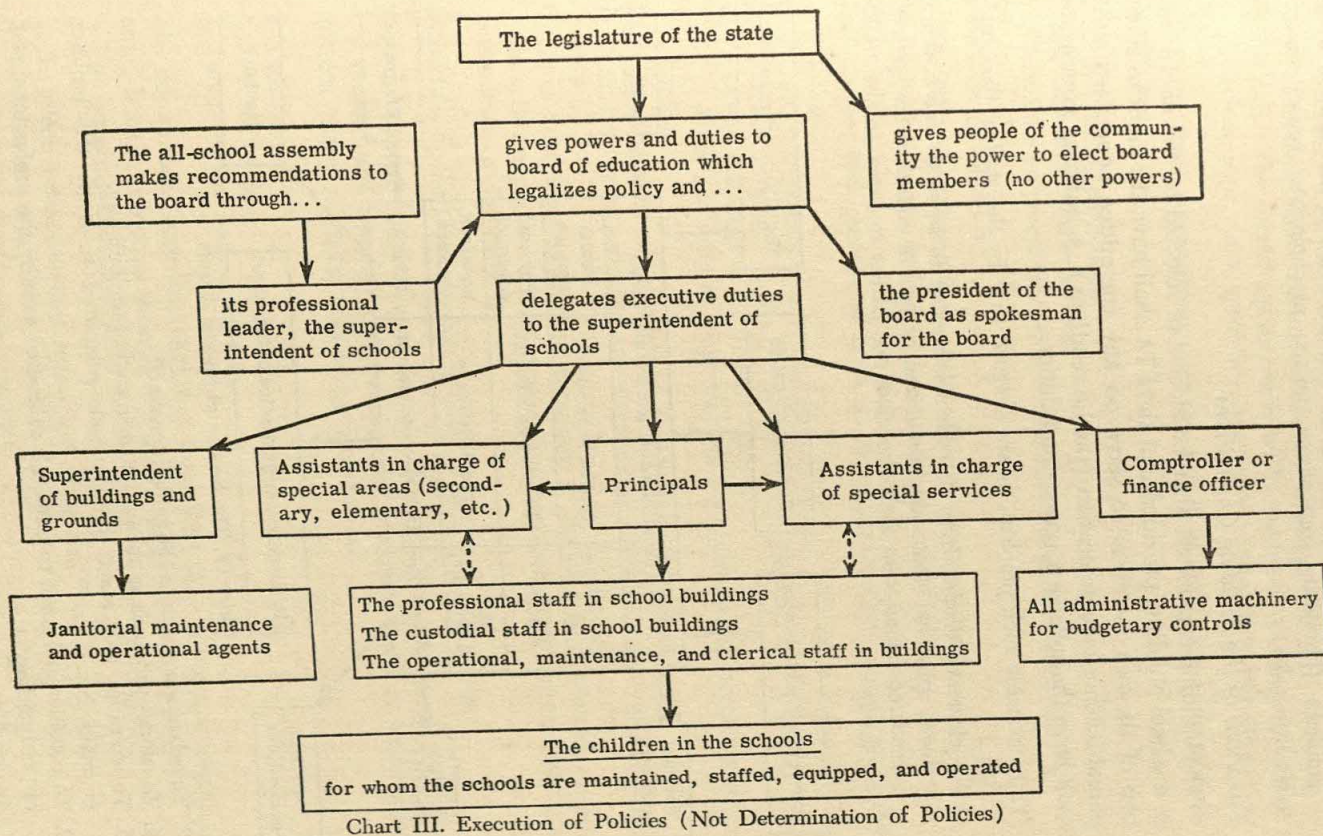


Chart III. Execution of Policies (Not Determination of Policies)



8. To utilize the special agents employed by the board in the study of school problems (physicians, supervisors, nurses, psychologists, superintendent, etc.).

### *Functions of the Building Committees*

The building committees shall be elected or selected by the entire staff in a school building, provided that the PTA shall have the right to select two of its own members to serve on any committee concerned with parent-teacher communication (public relations). A building committee shall have the following powers and duties:

1. To examine such problems as are assigned to it by the staff of the building.
2. To elect one teacher from its own membership to serve on the building council, provided that any committee on public relations or parent-teacher communication shall also elect one parent to serve on the building council.

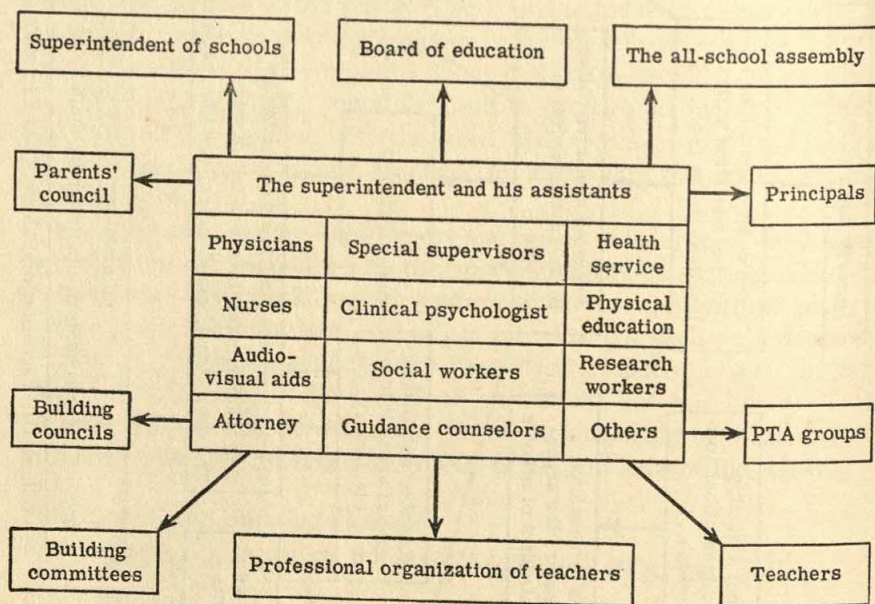


Chart IV. The Service of Special Agents

3. To submit proposals to the building council.
4. To submit proposals to the professional staff of the building.
5. To consider and react to proposals submitted to it by the building council.
6. To consider and react to proposals submitted to it by the professional staff of the building.
7. To consider and react to proposals submitted to it by the principal.



8. To cooperate with other standing committees of the building.
9. To meet with similar committees of other buildings.
10. To utilize the special agents employed by the board of education (superintendent, supervisors, specialists, counselors, physicians, nurses, etc.).

If only three committees exist in a school, the three committees should be:

1. Committee on curriculum.
2. Committee on teacher welfare.
3. Committee on parent-teacher communication (or public relations).

### *Function of the PTA*

The PTA shall function as outlined in its own constitution and bylaws, but it shall have the following duties and powers in addition:

1. To select two parents to serve on the parent-teacher committee of the building.
2. To elect two parents to serve on a parents' council.
3. To submit proposals to the parent-teacher communications committee.
4. To submit proposals to the parents' council.
5. To examine and react to proposals from the parent-teacher communications committee.
6. To examine and react to proposals from the parents' council.
7. To abstain from assuming any executive or administrative functions of the school.
8. To abstain from submitting proposals to the all-school assembly except through the parents' council or through the teacher-parents communications committee of the building.

### *Functions of the Organization of Staff Members in a Building*

The entire professional staff of each school building shall organize, elect a president and secretary, and divide the staff into three or more committees, three of which shall be committees on:

1. Curriculum.
2. Teacher welfare.
3. Parent-teacher communications.

The committees' members shall be selected by the staff, not by the principal, but the principal shall be considered as a member of the staff.

The building staff shall have the following duties and powers:

1. To select, create standing committees and to select members thereof.
2. To define the areas of work of each committee.
3. To submit proposals to any committee.
4. To examine and react to proposals of committees.



5. To keep accurate minutes and distribute copies thereof to every member of the staff.
6. To abstain from assuming any executive duties.
7. To utilize the services of special agents.
8. To create special committees to study particular problems provided that such committees must report only to the staff itself.

### *Function of the Superintendent*

The superintendent of schools should be responsible for transmitting all proposals made by the all-school assembly to the board of education. The board of education, which is the legal policy-making body, should examine all proposals and dispose of them as its best judgment would indicate. If the proposals are enacted into policies, it becomes the duty of the superintendent to see that the policies are carried out. If the outcome is a plan of action, it is the duty of the superintendent to execute the plan with effectiveness and dispatch.

### *The Board of Education*

Boards of education are elected by the people in conformity to our democratic ideals to express the judgment of the people concerning the operation of the schools. The board of education is a policy-making body. It is not an administering body. Wise boards of education seek the counsel and advice of superintendents of schools before determination of educational policies. Superior boards of education expect the superintendent of schools to utilize the intelligence of the professional personnel in preparing advice and counsel for the board of education. Thus, superior boards of education select educational leaders as superintendents of schools who are capable of bringing about coordinated, cooperative thinking and planning of teachers to bear upon the basic problems of school administration. Such boards of education select superintendents who are willing to be and are capable of being servants and representatives of the professional staff rather than masters of them. Such boards will select men or women who conceive of their task as being primarily one of coordinating the ideas and plans of action of the professional staff through cooperative action. Superior boards of education select administrators who will come to the board of education with proposals which are the result of consensus of the best judgment of the professional personnel, rather than men who will come to the board with proposals which stem only from the creative genius of the superintendent himself. Superior boards of education will judge the worth of a superintendent in terms of his ability to mobilize the thinking and inquiry of the staff for development of educational proposals to be examined by the board.

It is a well-known principle of psychology that growth takes place most



rapidly and most surely when the learner joins as a participant in initiating and planning the procedures which are to be followed in attacking a problem. It is not enough that schools be administered; teachers themselves must participate in the whole program of administration from one end to the other. The school should be administered in such a way as to guarantee that teachers have a large share in devising proposals for operation of and administration of the schools. The problems of curricu-

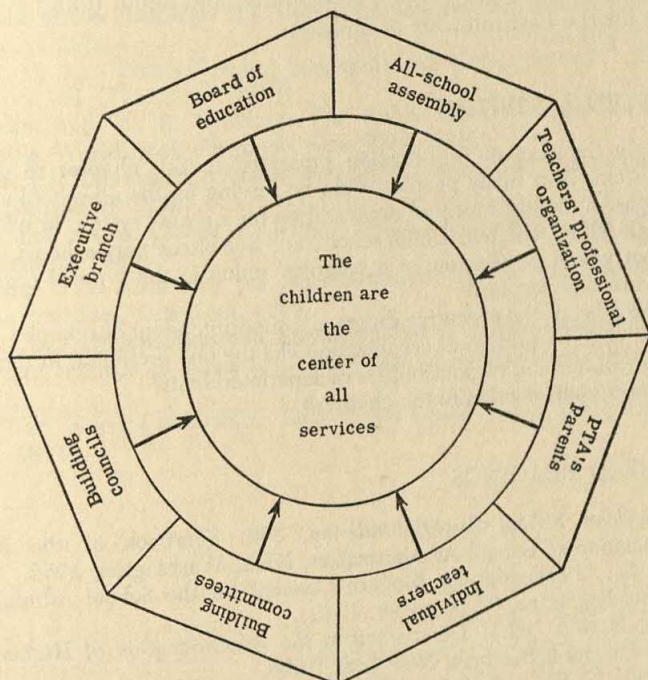


Chart V. Service Chart of All Groups

lum, communication between professional people and the community, and teacher welfare should all be dealt with through cooperative endeavor.

Boards of education, therefore, should provide in their rules and regulations for cooperative efforts by the professional staff, and should adopt policies which literally force the chief executive officer to preface his recommendations to the board on educational matters and problems of personnel management with the word "we."

The contrast between school systems which are administered by men or women who constantly use the phrase "I recommend" or "I suggest" and school systems in which the chief executive approaches the board with "We, the professional staff, recommend," or "We, the professional staff, suggest" are marked in teachers' attitudes, in the teachers' sense of per-



sonal worth, in teachers' conception of their professional role, and in their readiness to become increasingly competent teachers. Those who are denied a voice in policy making will either lose interest in the process, or sabotage its workings, or attempt to use the process for their own selfish gains. On the other hand, when the teachers know that the superintendent of schools is going to the board with the proposals of the staff, they become enthusiastic about improving themselves, about improving the schools, about improving the community, and about doing everything possible for the best interests of children.

### SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Apply the plan of organization presented in this chapter to your own school system. How many people would be serving on the all-school assembly?
2. Prepare a modified form of organization for a school system in which there is one high school, one junior high school, and five elementary schools.
3. What would be the role of a teachers' union in the type of organization presented in this chapter?
4. Make a list of the executive duties of a superintendent of schools.
5. How would a pattern of organization like the one presented in this chapter change the duties and responsibilities of superintendents?
6. What is your reaction to the chapter?

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